

# THE CHARITIES REVIEW

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Experience  
as a  
Teacher.

A few weeks ago the arches of a large vegetable cellar at the state reform school at Boonville, Missouri, caved in, killing three persons, two of whom were inmates, and injuring the superintendent. The arches have caved in four times before, it is stated, but as no one was hurt previously the officials in charge seem not to have heeded the repeated warning. This is what we call culpable neglect. Cellars do not cave in five times in succession unless there is something essentially wrong in their construction.

Apropos of  
More Fires.

The new administration building of the state prison at Sing Sing, built by convict labor under Warden Sage, was partially destroyed by fire October 31, with a loss of \$40,000. The local fire department *did not have enough hose to handle the fire properly*. The warden testified at a recent meeting of the commission which is inspecting the prisons of the state that if the fire had reached the roof of the main prison building he feared it could not have been stopped. In other words, the buildings at Sing Sing are known to be not fireproof.

The city hospital of Findlay, Ohio, was burned October 23. The fire department arrived in good time, but *there was no water supply within a quarter of a mile*, and the chemical was soon exhausted. The firemen could do nothing but stand and watch flames, which might easily have been controlled, spread and consume the entire plant. Loss, \$50,000. The building was supposed to be fireproof.

The state hospital at Columbus, Ohio, was threatened with a serious fire November 7. The institution and the local fire departments acted promptly, *and had water*. Loss, \$500. These little lessons point their own moral. The REVIEW will continue to bring them to mind, there being no lack of instances. Each month brings its list of loss and death from culpable neglect, mostly in the matter of adequate fire protection.

## THE INSANE.

We have in hand nine different reports from as many sections of the country, all telling the same old story of insane persons crowded out of the almshouses into state institutions, and crowded out of the state

institutions into almshouses; of county asylums to be established, and of county asylums that should, because of abuses, be abolished.

#### CITY AFFAIRS.

Subsidies vs.  
Private  
Initiation.

The Philadelphia society for organizing charity, in its financial appeal for the current year, makes known the fact that an annual appropriation of \$2,500, made by the legislature for a number of years towards the maintenance of its wayfarers' lodges, was not last year obtained. It is explained that a bill granting the usual sum passed the house of representatives, but that amid the hurry and confusion attendant upon the closing hours of the session it failed to secure the vote of the senate.

St. Luke's hospital in the same city, finding itself last summer without the usual appropriation from the state, felt compelled to close its doors. Owing to the energy and faith of the ladies' auxiliary association, however, it has now been reopened. It is reported that it is again upon a sound basis, with every prospect of success. Several New York and Brooklyn societies will have to meet a similar diminution of income from public funds, resulting, doubtless, in some instances, in temporary embarrassment. The change, however, when the result of a deliberate policy, is a desirable one. Public funds should be reserved for public enterprises. Faith and energy in private charitable undertakings will more than replace their loss.

Chicago's  
Pawnshop.

The REVIEW for last May contained an account of the enactment of a law by the Illinois legislature authorizing the incorporation of loaning societies under certain restrictions. The law fixes the maximum rate of interest allowable at one per cent a month, with an additional one-half of one per cent for insurance and storage. The bill was strongly opposed by pawnbrokers, who had a powerful organization to fight it. As a result, the measure was in some sense a compromise, and the law is not entirely satisfactory. Loans can be made only upon personal property, but can not be made on negotiable paper. As the society is at present operating, it loans only upon jewelry and clothing, with possibly some exceptions in the form of opera glasses, small musical instruments, etc. No loans are made upon any property which can not be placed in the vaults of the society for safe keeping. The minimum cash stock allowed by law is \$50,000, and that is the cash stock of the single society of the sort which has so far been organized. The government is vested in a board of directors elected by the stockholders, and two additional directors, one each appointed by the governor of the state and the mayor of Chicago. Since the society opened its office on the first of November the pressure upon it for loans has been exceedingly heavy. In a great many instances, persons have managed to take up loans held by individual pawnbrokers, and

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have placed them with the society. It is too soon to draw any conclusions as to the value to the community of the society's work, but there seems little doubt that the results of its operation will be salutary, although they will probably fall considerably short of entire expectations.

**Housing  
of the Poor  
in Chicago.**

Several years ago a committee on the housing of the poor was organized in Chicago, but soon became inactive and really accomplished little or nothing. The stimulus of the proposed tenement-house exhibit of the New York charity organization society led to a calling together of the old committee and the adding to it of a number of new and more active members. The committee at present is devoting its attention entirely to the preparation of an exhibit to be sent to New York in January. Funds have been provided to defray the expenses necessary to the employment of a secretary, and at the present time a good deal of interest is being manifested. It is in the minds of some that the committee may become permanent, and may carry on a vigorous campaign in favor of improved housing of the poor, better transportation, the removal of poor families to the suburbs, the establishment of small downtown parks, etc.

It is felt by all that the removal of the New York exhibit to Chicago for a time will awaken much public interest and certainly result in permanent good.

**Congratula-  
tions  
to Baltimore.**

The jail board of Baltimore, on November 2, dismissed the warden of the city jail for allowing several prisoners to go out in care of keepers to register as voters previous to the November election. At the same time they dismissed the deputy warden for not having informed the board that men were being sent out to register. The action of the board was unanimous. It is of interest to know that under a régime previous to the present one it was quite customary for inhabitants of the jail, even in large numbers, to be permitted to register, and, in fact, to be released, on promise to vote a certain ticket. Doubtless the late incumbent supposed that custom justified him in the same course. But Baltimore civic spirit has been active of late, and no political corruption has ever successfully withstood a thoroughly aroused public spirit. In Baltimore this has been so clearly demonstrated that the citizens have constantly to be rubbing their eyes to be sure they are not dreaming.

**Boston Society  
of Municipal  
Officers.**

The Boston society of municipal officers was organized by Mayor Josiah Quincy, early in his fourth year of office, in order primarily to promote a more personal acquaintance between those who are serving the city in its various departments. At its first meeting he stated the ultimate objects of the society to be as follows:

1. To stimulate an interest in the affairs of Boston among its citizens.
2. To promote a better civic spirit.

3. To interest a larger number of people in the work which the city has to do.

According to the constitution, the mayor of Boston is president of the society. Officials or ex-officials of the city of Boston are eligible for membership, but membership is limited to the mayor, heads of departments, and members of executive boards or semi-official boards constituted by the legislature, city council, or the mayor. Ex-officials must be recommended for membership by the executive committee. At open meetings the executive committee has also the privilege of inviting guests. There is an annual membership fee of \$2. No entrance fee is required.

The hour for meeting is 1.15 P. M. An informal luncheon is served, each member paying for his or her own ticket. As it is intended that the society shall discuss questions relating to municipal subjects from an expert standpoint, an address or paper is usually presented at the regular meetings, and is followed by a short discussion. The meetings adjourn at about 3.30 P. M. Up to the present time five regular meetings have been held, two of which have taken place respectively at the public library and the Boston almshouse, one purpose of the society being to interest its members in the various departments and institutions of the city.

The society at present numbers about one hundred members, and the usual attendance at regular meetings is between thirty and forty. While it is too early to assume that such a society can be a power in the community, it is not too much to state that it has large possibilities of usefulness, and that its fullest development has not yet been reached.

*Alice N. Lincoln.*

**Another  
"Monday Evening"  
Club.**

A club to be patterned after the Monday evening club of Boston has been proposed for Cincinnati. The object is to bring into a closer and more social relationship those connected with the several charitable institutions of the city.

**The Treatment  
of Drunkards.**

A committee appointed by the mayor of Boston to consider the "penal aspects of drunkenness," has submitted a report on the subject, of great interest and importance to municipalities. This will be noted at length in the REVIEW for January.

**Cheap Food  
on Recreation  
Piers.**

It is planned in Philadelphia to provide on one of the new recreation piers of the city a restaurant where clean, wholesome food will be sold at prices that will make it possible for women and children to get their noon meals without going home for it or eating it cold, thus facilitating all-day outings. It will be interesting to see how this plan, which has been successfully carried out in Europe, will work under the American politician.

**Typhoid at  
Allegheny.**

We noted recently some of the insanitary tenement conditions which have been arousing the attention of people in the vicinity of Pittsburgh. As a logical sequence it is not surprising to find it stated, that all the hospitals of Allegheny are at present overcrowded with typhoid patients. The tenements are not entirely to blame, however. Many

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**New Jersey  
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of the sewer mains, it is said, are never thoroughly flushed except in case of a heavy rain. The accumulations of a long, dry season are therefore partially accountable for the present epidemic.

#### CHILDREN.

New Jersey  
Children's  
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The state board of children's guardians of New Jersey has recently submitted its first annual report to the governor of the state. The first duty of the board was to investigate the circumstances of the parents and relatives of the 403 children in almshouses. The board had no appropriation for its expense, but through the co-operation of private charitable societies the history of many of the children has been ascertained. There had been no uniformity in the method of commitment, and the records were found to be fragmentary. As a result of the preliminary investigation, 146 children were returned to their relatives, who were found to be able to care for them, and proper persons to do so. Twenty-six children have been placed in free homes during the year. The total number of applications from families desiring to receive children was 147, of which 105 were approved.

The experience of the board has demonstrated that plenty of good boarding homes in families can be secured by the payment of \$1.50 per week, and the board is strongly in favor of this method of caring for children who can not be placed at once in free homes. The board favors the placing of children in

families by simple agreement rather than by indenture. An arrangement has been made for securing monthly reports from school teachers and pastors. A statement of the number of children in each almshouse in the state is appended to the report.

The Chicago  
Juvenile  
Court.

In accordance with the children's law enacted last winter, and noted in the REVIEW for May, a juvenile court was opened in Chicago July 1. Hon. R. S. Tuthill, of the circuit court, had been selected by his fellow judges to preside over the new court. Judge Tuthill is a man of long and successful experience on the bench, and, most important, is in hearty sympathy with the new law.

Many difficulties were encountered at the outset. One was that it was necessary to provide a place outside of the county jail and the police stations where the children under charge might be kept; but no place was ready. The Illinois industrial association, a society for the aid of prisoners, decided to enlarge its sphere, and offered to care for the boys. This offer was accepted. The building formerly used as a workshop for discharged prisoners has been fitted up, in addition to the main building, for the use of the boys. These buildings are of wood. They are inadequate and unsuitable, but are the best available at present. The boys, however, are well treated and safely kept. The younger dependent boys and

the dependent girls are still kept at the detention hospital, connected with the county hospital.

Until October cases of dependent children were heard by the county court, as formerly, in order to give the judge of the juvenile court a chance to become accustomed to the new work. Now the court hears the dependent cases on Monday morning. The delinquent children are first brought before the police justices, that such cases as they deem proper may be dismissed. The others are transferred to the juvenile court, and are heard on the afternoons of Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.

Volunteer probation officers were appointed. At first there were three, two women representing social settlements and a man representing a children's society. Others have since been added. The court has found their services of great value, in spite of the fact that they can devote but a portion of their time to the work. Already the judge says that he must have a permanent officer to supervise and supplement this volunteer work.

One hindrance to the successful operation of the court has been found in an amendment added to the law just before its passage. This reads, in part, "In all commitments to the said institutions the acts in reference to the said institutions shall govern the same." This requires that all the children sent to the industrial schools or to the reform school for girls shall be tried by jury, while the boys to be sent to the reformatory at

Pontiac must be indicted by the grand jury. Judge Tuthill believes that these requirements are needless. He says that the clause must be repealed, as it complicates the process. The judge, in his opinion, should have full discretion as to the proper place for the child.

One of the first acts of the court was to have a policeman from each precinct selected as a probation officer. This action has been criticised, on the ground that it might lead to the unfavorable practice of compelling paroled boys to report to the police officers at the police stations. Some of the officers are intelligent, capable men; others are hardly such as we should choose to be the guardians of boys. It has been suggested that it might be well to have an officer in each precinct detailed to handle the children's cases in the police courts, but that the work in the juvenile court and the subsequent care of probationers should be in the hands of probation officers, appointed for this work exclusively. Those who drew the law seem to have had some such plan in mind, for section six reads, "Said probation officers to receive no compensation from the public treasury." The practice obtains in Chicago of detailing policemen to work with various charitable societies, and these likewise have been appointed probation officers.

The board of education has reorganized the compulsory education department, and its agents have been made probation officers. As yet there is no parental school. It will be remembered that the law provid-

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ing for the erection of such a school was passed last winter. The practice has been introduced of sending the confirmed truants to the John Worthy school. This school, the city reformatory for boys, is attached to the house of correction. This plan of mixing truants and delinquents has been severely criticised.

A serious difficulty in the proper administration of the law has been the difficulty on the part of those unaccustomed to the newer methods of dealing with children to grasp the full meaning and significance of the law. It was not to be expected that such a radical departure in the treatment of the juvenile offender could be introduced without making some mistakes and meeting some serious obstacles. There is, however, no room for discouragement. The court has already won a place for itself, and patient endeavor will remedy the defects.

It is of course too early to say much of results, but decided progress is evident. Children are no longer fined for misdemeanors nor sent to the John Worthy school for a few days for non-payment of fine. The sentences now are indeterminate. Sympathetic treatment is assured. The shyster lawyer finds a large part of his opportunities gone. The moral effect of the oversight exercised by the probation officer is clear, and the children are coming to realize that his supervision is a real thing. Frequently, too, work is found for a homeless lad instead of either turning him adrift or locking him up, as formerly. The police officials are

well pleased with the results. Most hopeful of all is the fact that the judge is deeply interested in the work and is ever open to suggestions. In fact all who have watched the court feel that excellent results are to be expected.

The experiment is soon to be made of boarding out some of the delinquent children in family homes. The supervision of this work has been undertaken by the Illinois children's home and aid society, at the request of the judge.

**Detention  
of Juvenile  
Offenders  
in Baltimore.**

The question of building a house of detention for juvenile offenders has been once more brought before the Baltimore city council by an ordinance being drafted appropriating \$10,000 for the erection of such a building in the jail yard. Though a favorable report was made on the ordinance by the committee on police and jail, the board of estimates, in its effort to reduce the tax rate for 1900, excluded from its estimated expenditures the appropriation of this sum. The new mayor has stated that, on account of the necessity of having a low tax rate, he would veto the ordinance if passed by the council; therefore at present there is no likelihood of such a building being provided.

During the administration of the last two mayors the question of erecting a house of detention has been given much thought. Until 1896, boy offenders from seven to sixteen years of age were kept with the adult prisoners, often being placed in cells

with hardened criminals. For several weeks at a time children awaiting trial would be subjected to vile associations for having committed such petty offences as throwing stones or stealing rides on the street cars. In 1896, the juvenile were separated from the adult prisoners, a corridor in the administration building being set apart for their use. Some effort is made to instruct these children, about 400 of whom annually pass through the jail. At one time this fall an Italian, sentenced to a term of imprisonment for getting money on false pretenses, acted as teacher.

The present jail board, as well as its predecessor, has not appreciated the importance of complete separation of the juvenile offenders from jail influences. The further delay of this important reform will be in the end beneficial, if agitation of the subject leads to an appropriate building being raised entirely away from the city jail.

**New York  
Children's  
Aid Society.**

The forty-seventh annual report of the New York children's aid society contains an interesting study of the children placed in homes from 1854 to 1875. Not including older children sent to situations or employment, or children afforded transportation with their parents to points in the west, the total number of children placed in families during these twenty years was 20,004. Of this number, 2,423, or a little less than one-fifth, were under ten years of age. There were received from public institutions 2,578, from lodging-houses and industrial schools of the children's aid society and from

private institutions, 11,308, and from parents, relatives, and other sources, 6,118. The after-careers of many of the children are not known, but of those who have been traced, 53 are teachers, 2 are college professors, 22 are lawyers, 12 clergymen, 23 bankers or engaged in banking business, 9 physicians, 4 druggists, 14 telegraph operators, 2 railroad managers, and 7 conductors. The report states that, "With us it is no longer a hypothesis, but a conviction and firm belief on evidence, that environment will change and overcome heredity."

The number of children placed in family homes during the eleven months covered by the present report was 234, indicating that the placing-out work of the society has decreased in recent years. The number of children now under the supervision of the society adopted into homes, or on trial for adoption, is 941.

Gov. John S. Pillsbury, of Minneapolis, Minnesota, and his wife have recently donated an endowment fund of \$100,000 to the home for children and aged women of Minneapolis. Mrs. Pillsbury is president of the board of managers of the institution, and has been actively identified with its work for many years. The fund is to be invested, and the annual income applied to the current expenses of the institution.

**South  
Australia.**

The report of the state children's council of South Australia for the year ending June 30, shows that the

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number of children under the care of the council at the close of the year was as follows:

In the industrial school (a temporary home)	63
In reformatories	128
Placed out in families	1,004
In various institutions	17
Absconders	11
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Of the 1,004 children placed out in families, 615 were boarded, 267 were at service, 56 were adopted, 47 were with relatives, 17 were in free homes, and 2 were apprenticed.

The number of transfers of children from one family to another during the year was 474. It is a little disappointing to find that only one inspector is employed to visit more than one thousand children placed in families, although he is expected to visit each of them every four months. The council modestly recommends the appointment of one additional inspector. In addition to the official inspection reports are received from local volunteer visiting committees.

#### CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

The associated charities of Cambridge, Mass., has recently issued for the use of its friendly visitors a twenty-four-page pamphlet describing the salient features of each of the numerous educational institutions open to the Cambridge public, and telling where to apply for more detailed information concerning each institution. The list includes exceptionally varied educational opportunities, from the public day and evening schools, the various

gymnasias and literary institutions, to Harvard university. These opportunities, it is felt, are missed by some of those who most need them, because they do not know about them, or do not know how to get at them. Friendly visitors are asked to see whether any of the institutions mentioned might be used to the advantage of the families in whom they are interested. The pamphlet will also be sent by the society to members of the "social service" committees of those churches in Cambridge which have accepted districts for social work, to emphasize the fact that their aim should be the moral and social elevation of their district, rather than the expenditure of their best effort in the merely palliative work of relief giving.

Dr. Jas. W. Walk, who has been for fifteen years general secretary of the Philadelphia society for organizing charity, resigned early in November, and has been succeeded by Mr. Frank T. Atkinson, the former registrar.

Wanted: A secretary to take charge of charity organization work in a city of 125,000 inhabitants. Also one for a town of 20,000 inhabitants. Application may be made through the REVIEW.

#### PRISONERS.

In several states where the statistics have been carefully studied a marked decrease in prison population has

Decrease in  
Crime.

been noted, commencing during the summer of 1898. Local changes in legislation, affecting prisoners held for non-payment of fines, reducing the time for which they might be detained on this account, have accounted partially for the decrease in Massachusetts, but in this state, as in the others where the decrease has been noticed, more general causes have clearly been at work. Mr. Warren F. Spalding, secretary of the Massachusetts prison association, says in this connection:

The cause of the decrease can not be fixed with certainty. That the war was one of the prominent causes seems clear, largely by turning attention to new and exciting subjects, and partly by the enlistment of some young men who had to a greater or less extent been addicted to drinking to excess. The improvement of business has also been a factor in the reduction. While an increase of earnings has supplied more money for dissipation, it has also enabled those arrested for petty offences to pay their fines, thereby reducing the number of commitments. The more general employment of men has also taken them out of temptation, and reduced the amount of over-indulgence.

It must be borne in mind that the increase or decrease of the number of persons in prison at a given time does not necessarily prove an actual increase or decrease in crime. The number of persons may decrease, by the reduction of the penalty, while crime actually increases. As a large proportion of the prison population consists of persons committed for non-payment of fines, it is reduced when minor offenders have money with which to pay fines. The enforcement of the law against petty offenders changes from year to year

and also affects the number of commitments, but after making allowance for these things there can be no doubt that there has been a considerable decrease in crime during the past year.

*The Cost of Crime.*

In the same pamphlet in which Mr. Spalding has considered the decrease of crime in his state, he offers a brief study of the cost of crime. While, perhaps because of its more elaborate system, this cost may be higher in Massachusetts,—and the results better, than in some other states, yet the figures are fairly representative for the whole country:

The expense of caring for criminals is borne in three different taxes. A part of the cost is paid by the state, a part by the counties, and a part by the cities and towns. The state expenses are for salaries of the judges of the superior court, for district attorneys and district police. These officials have duties connected with the conviction of criminals. In this estimate of the cost to the state, we have assumed that one-half of the expenditure for judges of the superior court might properly be charged to this account, as a considerable part of their work in the courts is in the trial of civil causes. We have also added one-fourth of the expense of the attorney-general's department as crime cost. Next in order is the cost of the penal and reformatory institutions and schools of the state, in Massachusetts six in number. To this should be added the expenditures for management and supervision of these institutions, the expense of removal of prisoners, relief of discharged prisoners, arrest of fugitives, and a few other small items. No account has been made of the cost of the supreme judicial

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court, though much of its time is given to questions of law growing out of trials of criminal cases. The aggregate expenditure of the state for the items mentioned is about \$745,000, or practically one-half of the total state tax.

The county expenditures on account of crime are mainly for courts and prisoners. The municipal police and district courts and the trial justices are paid for by the counties. They do both civil and criminal business. We have estimated that one-half the cost of the lower courts is on account of crime. The business of the sheriffs and the clerks of court is partly civil and partly criminal. One-half of the salaries of these officers also is charged to the cost of crime. Here belong the net cost of county prisons, after deducting their receipts from all sources. Further items which are not easily separable from other accounts have been omitted, so that the estimate on the whole will be below the actual figures. The total expense of the counties in Massachusetts thus exceeds \$1,000,000 annually, ranging from fifteen per cent of the total tax in Dukes and Nantucket to forty-eight per cent in Essex. The tax of Suffolk county is borne wholly by the city of Boston, and is not separable from other municipal taxes.

The third division of the cost of crime, as assessed to taxpayers, is that of cities and towns. The principal item of this cost is for police expenses. The principal receipts are for fines imposed by the lower courts. Counting in merely the cities of Massachusetts, though each smaller town has its police expenses, the total cost of crime to this class is nearly \$3,000,000. This, added to the cost to counties and to the state, makes a total of nearly \$5,000,000 annual expenditure for police protection against criminals. The aver-

age cost of an arrest in the state is \$50. The average cost of keeping prisoners is \$130 per prisoner per annum. The cost of providing buildings for prison inmates varies in the state institutions from \$1,200 per inmate to \$2,500.

#### County Jails.

The Massachusetts prison association uses these figures as a strong argument in favor of the encouragement and support of such efforts as its own to lessen the amount of crime in the state and the expense of reforming the criminal. The association also makes the figures the basis of an arraignment of the prison system in vogue in Massachusetts, as elsewhere, by which each county has its own prison for all classes, instead of all prisons being directly under the control of the state, thus enabling the adaptation of each of the twenty-six prisons now in the state to the needs of a special class of prisoners. Under the county system there is, of course, little possibility of such classification. In this failure to separate old offenders from first offenders, women from men, and minors from adults, the prison association finds one of the gravest encouragements of a permanent criminal class.

#### Misdemeanor Appeals in Missouri.

It is probable that the supreme court of Missouri will sustain the opinion of the attorney-general, that there is no statutory provision in the state providing for appeal in misdemeanor cases. If this is done, it is estimated that there will be a

saving to the state in criminal costs of not less than \$300,000 annually.

**Discipline  
of Penal  
Inmates.**

Judge Fort of New Jersey in instructions to the grand jury of Essex county recently explained the law of the state regarding discipline in penal institutions as follows:

A blow, or cruel usage, which is unlawful when inflicted by one person upon another, is equally unlawful when the act of a jail warden upon a convict, unless statutory authority for the blow or cruelty can be invoked as a justification. . . . For such blow or cruel usage the prison official is criminally indictable.

The prohibition applies to all forms of corporal punishment upon a convict to cause bodily pain. "There is," says the judge, "no inherent power in the warden of a prison to punish a convict from the simple fact of the relation of keeper and prisoner."

Judgment to the same effect has been given within the month by the supreme court of Tennessee. In a suit for damages against the keeper of the Knox county workhouse, the opinion of the lower court was sustained that no workhouse, city, county, or state prison keeper has a legal right to whip a prisoner.

**Georgia's  
Penal  
System.**

The second annual report of the Georgia state prison commission shows that the financial operation of the new convict system of the state is entirely satisfactory. It is thought, moreover, that the evils attendant on the old system of indiscriminate

leasing have been successfully eliminated.

**STATE BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.**

**New York.**

The next meeting of the state board of charities is scheduled for the middle of December. Meantime, the committee on publication is engaged in the preparation of the board's report to the legislature of 1900.

In co-operation with the state comptroller and the attorney-general, the board's committee on soldiers and sailors' homes will shortly undertake an important and extended inquiry into the administration of the soldiers and sailors' home at Bath, which has been the subject of considerable newspaper discussion during the past few months.

Four of the inmates of the house of refuge for women at Hudson, who were most prominent in the recent outbreak there, already noticed in the REVIEW, have been legally adjudged insane and transferred to the hospital for insane criminals at Matteawan, thus confirming the belief of the new board of managers that strapping was not a proper method of enforcing discipline in their cases.

**Minnesota.**

The Minnesota bulletin of charities and correction for September contains a brief account of the eighth Minnesota state conference of charities and correction held at Duluth, September 4-6; reports of visits of inspections to some of the county poorhouses and jails; and complete financial and

other statistics.

The average inmate of the years 1895, \$18.18; 1898, \$15.00; age daily son fed in the years 1895, 11.2; 1897, 10.1; 1899, 10.8; of the ins been as f 5,293 inma readmissio year, 7,6 1,979; die 1899, 5,41 of inmate 5,269.

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**Connecticut.**

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other statistics of the state institutions.

The average current expenses per inmate of the state institutions for the years named were as follows: 1895, \$184; 1896, \$191; 1897, \$176; 1898, \$159; 1899, \$160. The average daily cost of food for each person fed in the state institutions for the years named was as follows: 1895, 11.2 cents; 1896, 10.3 cents; 1897, 10.1 cents; 1898, 11 cents; 1899, 10.8 cents. The population of the institutions for the year has been as follows: August 1, 1898, 5,293 inmates; new admissions, 1,531; readmissions, 829; total during the year, 7,653. Inmates dismissed, 1,979; died, 263; leaving on July 31, 1899, 5,411. The average number of inmates during the year was 5,269.

The proceedings of the eighth Minnesota conference, including the speeches made, the papers presented, and the discussions which followed them, form a document of over 90 pages, which contains many items of interest to the student of sociology.

The annual meetings of the temporary homes for dependent and neglected children, of which there is one in each of the eight counties in Connecticut, have been held during the last month, and the statistics of their operations for the fiscal year ending September 30 have been compiled by the secretary of the state board of charities. These show a gratifying decrease in the number of children supported in the county homes, the

number present October 1, 1899, being 662, as compared with 728 present October 1, 1898. This decrease may be accounted for in part by the general prosperity prevalent in the state of late, which reduces the number of cases of destitution, and in part by the gradual effect of the law of 1897, which permits the retention of children in almshouses until four years of age instead of two years, as under the former law. The number of new cases committed to the homes during the year was 298, as compared with 393 for the previous year, and the number of children returned to the homes from families in which they had been placed was 191, as against 218 so returned during the year preceding, this latter fact indicating that greater care is being taken to secure family homes in which the children and the families are mutually satisfactory. A very commendable increase is also shown in the number of family homes secured during the year, the total number of children newly placed and those replaced being 351, as compared with 322 the year before. The record of mortality for the year is remarkably low, there being only five deaths among the children during the year.

At the Connecticut state prison work is in progress upon the additions authorized by the last legislature, which appropriated \$125,000 for the purpose. They will include a congregate dining-room for the male prisoners, new kitchen and power plant, an additional block of 208 cells for men, a new wing for

the women's department, and a new execution house. When completed they will add materially to the prison's accommodations and will relieve its present overcrowded condition. The night school has been considerably enlarged under the new régime, and now numbers about eighty men. Its sessions have been transferred from the old school-room, whose accommodations were limited to thirty-six pupils, to the chapel, where the school is at present conducted in six classes. The new warden, Mr. Albert Garvin, promises to give satisfaction to all who are interested in the highest welfare of the prison.

The directors of the hospital for the insane at Middletown have recently adopted the plans of the superintendent, Dr. Charles W. Page, for the erection of a large congregate dining-room to accommodate about a thousand patients, and ground will be broken for the new structure this fall. Its completion will make possible Dr. Page's plan for the reorganization of the institution into three general departments: a hospital proper for the treatment of acute cases, an asylum for the custodial care of the chronic insane, and an infirmary for the aged and feeble. The new pathological laboratory is a valuable addition to the equipment of the hospital and gives opportunity for much excellent work.

New  
Hampshire.

The state board of charities and corrections has organized as follows: President, Edward J. Burnham, of

Manchester; secretary, Oliver J. M. Gilman, of Alton. The other members of the board are Mrs. W. H. C. Follansby, of Exeter; Mrs. Lillian C. Streeter, of Concord, and James F. Brennan, of Peterborough.

Iowa. It is reported that the board of control of state

institutions of Iowa has issued an order requiring officers and employés who board at institutions to have a common table with the inmates, and to partake of precisely the same food as is given to the inmates.

New Jersey. The thirteenth annual report of the state charities

aid association has been submitted to the governor. The association proposes in this report the inauguration of a series of winter meetings, through which the work of the state institutions may be made more familiar than at present to the general public, which, the report states, is too little interested in these matters. The county jails are scored for the failure to separate first offenders from hardened criminals. There is, however, separate provision in most jails for children, and for women, which is a notable improvement. The report considers at length some features of the present penal system, and the county almshouses and insane asylums. Of the county asylums so far established, one at least has already fallen into the hands of the politicians, that of Hudson county. The association believes that, sooner or later, each of the county asylums must meet a similar fate, and for this reason it favors state care. The employment

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of a trained visitor, to regularly inspect state, county, and city institutions, is recommended.

The recent scandals in connection with the management of the New Jersey state industrial school for girls, and of the state prison, have led to a desultory discussion as to the possibility of improving the administrative methods of conducting the state institutions, and of making the managing boards more directly accountable to the state. There is at present no effective supervision of these institutions. The annual inspection by the legislative committees is, of course, a mere function. Even if such visits of inspection were made more frequently and unexpectedly, they would not accomplish their object. It is a trite suggestion to offer to the readers of *THE CHARITIES REVIEW*, that visitors and inspectors must have experience and training to make their observations at all fruitful.

The state comptroller checks the expenditures of the various institutions very carefully, and the writer's impression is that his department virtually audits the accounts of each state board. Of course, this merely concerns the business management of the institutions, in respect to which we can recall no scandal in New Jersey during the last decade. The charitable and reformatory institutions of the state are managed by separate boards. They are absolutely non-partisan, and the members serve without compensation. As a rule, the state has been able to command the services of its best citizens for such work, and, in the main, these institutions are admirably conducted, and take deservedly high rank throughout the country. The penal institutions are, however, under political influence to some

extent, and some of the county institutions are dominated by politicians.

To what extent could abuses be remedied by the creation of the right kind of a state board of charities and correction? We had a state board once, but it was a political affair and did absolutely nothing. Nor did it have the authority to do very much. And unless we could have an absolutely non-partisan board, of men and women, serving without compensation, with terms of office so varied that no single executive could appoint more than a minority of the board; and unless such a board had not merely supervisory, but, to some extent, administrative powers, with authority to regulate, in a measure, the private charitable societies; and unless it was backed up by a strong and practical civil service law governing all state, county, and municipal appointments above the rank of laborer, the writer would regard the creation of a state board with some degree of trepidation.

The immediate advantage to be gained would be the elimination of lobbying for appropriations by the managing boards of state institutions. Every winter these gentlemen are forced to dance attendance upon the appropriations committee of the legislature, perhaps hanging around the state house for days together before the proper opportunity is given them, and then, in hasty fashion, presenting their demands, and being hectorred by the committee, who assume that each board asks more than it expects to get, and haggle accordingly. It is an undignified and unbusiness-like proceeding, a source of endless worry to the committee, and of exasperation to the managers of the boards.

It occurs to me that it might be possible to so extend the functions and facilities of the state charities

aid association as to enable it adequately to perform the supervisory duties of a state board of charities. As a volunteer association of persons who are interested in the problems of charities and correction, and are imbued with a high sense of civic responsibility and public spirit, it has accomplished wonders in the way of reform legislation, and in the correction of local abuses. By the pressure of the public sentiment which it has been able to create, it has become a powerful influence for good and a terror to evildoers. But a volunteer association has, with all its advantages, certain limitations, and it is a doubtful question whether the association could perform the more important duties of a state board without impairing its usefulness in other directions. If not, is there any other practical remedy that can be suggested, pending the long and exhausting educational campaign which must be undertaken before civil service legislation can be obtained? We of New Jersey are seeking light in the matter.

*Hugh F. Fox.*

**Decrease  
of Blindness.**

Recent annual reports of the New York institution for the blind have called attention to the steadily diminishing number of pupils in that institution, which in 1886 had 216 inmates, but at the present time has only 169. The explanation of this lies in the greater sanitary precautions taken in the metropolis wherever children are brought together in large numbers, especially in institutions. The use of roller towels, for instance, has been largely done away with, and in other ways the chances of infection from other children having such diseases as ophthalmia are now greatly lessened. Thus, it seems, the ratio of

blind persons to those who can see, a ratio in general of one in 1,200 of population, has been reduced in this city to one in 2,500, the decrease being almost entirely among minors.

**WOMEN'S CLUBS.**

Recent reports of women's clubs indicate the active and intelligent interest which club women are taking in social problems.

**Delaware.**

The new century club of Wilmington, through its committee on philanthropy, has been making an exhaustive investigation of the legal questions and difficulties involved in the guardianship of children; also of the conditions pertaining to the industrial life of women and children. The law in Delaware places the disposition of the child with the father alone. The woman factory inspector, Mrs. Beck, reported improved conditions surrounding the industrial life of the women of the state. The greatest interest of the year was prison reform. In January the club gave its indorsement to a bill for a county workhouse to be presented to the state legislature by the Delaware union for public good. This association has been working for six years in behalf of such a measure. The club authorized a public meeting in the interest of prison reform.

**Denver.**

The woman's club, with a membership of 1,000, does a practical work in education, philanthropy, and civics. It has a committee whose duty it is to investigate and report upon public work, public officials, public acts,

and needed organization. Every member having a voice. One of the forms achieved the repeal of the father time law. The unborn child. The past year conference. tion, and the association, benefit of the their discussion.

**Nebraska.**

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**Chicago.**

women's club important step the bureau Their presence of schools for women, in technical work



and needed legislative reforms. The organization is complete, each member having her own department. One of the many legislative reforms achieved by this club was the repeal of the law which gave the father the right to will away his unborn child. This club has during the past year joined the national conference of charities and correction, and the national prison reform association, thereby receiving the benefit of their publications and of their discussions.

## Nebraska.

Reports from York, Nebraska, where the annual convention of the federation of women's clubs was held in October, are interesting. Manual training was discussed, and a great deal made of the importance of "training the hands and mind." The vacation problem was handled in an interesting way. It is admitted that it is a vexed question how to care for children in vacation, so as to give them sufficient recreation and at the same time keep the mind and body under restraint. One lady, speaking on the improvement needed in country schools, pleaded for neat and attractive surroundings as a great factor in the education of the child.

## Chicago.

The philanthropic department of the west end women's club has taken a very important step in allying itself with the bureau of associated charities. Their present work is the opening of schools for untrained and unskilled women, in what are called "economical workrooms."

## Negro Women.

Among interesting club notes is an account of the women's negro conference held recently in Hampton. Many facts have been made public about the good work done by negro women for the unfortunate of their race. They have been untiring in their efforts, and have had good results. The colored woman's league, of Washington, reported that through its influence six kindergartens had been opened in the public colored schools. A day nursery has also been established.

## New York.

On November 7, 400 women, representing 30,000 club-women of the state of New York, assembled in Eureka hall, Rochester. On the last day of the convention the discussion of the philanthropic side of club work proved that club-women understand philanthropy to signify a broadening of views, an enlargement of opportunity, and the encouragement of sympathetic relations between women of various classes. Important labor problems were discussed at some length. The discussion of esthetics in civics was introduced. Much has been, and is being, done to bring the lives of the wage earners to a higher plane. The chairman noted the fact that the kindergarten lays the foundation of character and teaches refinement of manners. She also dwelt upon the measures adopted to provide children of the poor with amusement and instruction during the summer vacation season. The speaker argued that athletics ought to be encouraged; that at a recent meeting of teachers

of prominent English schools it was conceded that athletics and outdoor sports were the greatest protection against immorality.

A resolution was passed providing for the establishment of a state industrial school for girls. The plan provides that pupils shall be charged board and lodging at the lowest rates consistent with the cost. It was stated that hundreds of girls in large cities, unable to attend the night schools, could receive in these schools training which would afford them means of support. No trades in which men are interested will be taught. This limits the usefulness of the school in a large measure, and narrows the number of industries to housework, cooking, and sewing. Bookkeeping, stenography, and type-writing, which are so essential in the training of the working girl, will not be taught. State aid and state control of the proposed school are to be asked for again this year at Albany.

**Moral Quarantine of Tuberculosis.** The *Philadelphia Medical Journal* calls attention to the important fact that measures of quarantine or restriction of individual liberty are not necessary for tuberculosis, as they are for smallpox and diphtheria, for the very good reason that the infection of tuberculosis may be destroyed by certain simple, safe, and absolutely effective measures, while at the same time the infected person need not have his personal liberty invaded nor be subjected to the ignominy of being officially tabbed "suspect." The educated and conscientious consumptive is not a source of greater danger to his fellow-men than is the sufferer from many other diseases.

But the ignorant and careless consumptive is a certain and ever present source of danger. Therefore the measures for the prevention of tuberculosis at this time must be almost wholly educational, and but slightly if at all restrictive.

The measures which are already approved by sanitarians throughout the world are all based upon the educational lines here advocated. In almost every state of the union there has been issued by the state board of health a pamphlet or circular setting forth briefly, and in language easily understood, the principal facts known in regard to consumption and the methods by which it is propagated; to this is added a short statement of the ordinarily necessary preventive measures. If local boards of health would earnestly co-operate with state boards of health in disseminating among the people this necessary knowledge, the campaign of education would gain great momentum. If all of the newspapers would publish from time to time the full and authoritative statements of the state board of health, the common people would have the necessary facts brought continually before them. In this way sentiment can be educated at the same time that extreme views may be combated and needless alarm soothed.

When every sufferer from tuberculosis becomes convinced that his own expectoration is the medium through which infection can be conveyed, and that he must so dispose of his spittle that it can not dry and be blown about to be inhaled by others, the first grand victory will be won. The public intelligence that will fully comprehend and act upon that knowledge will also realize that the consumptive who is careful to dispose properly of his expectoration is no longer a source of great

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**Tuberculosis and Life Insurance.**

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danger to his fellow-men. And the public intelligence that has reached that point will also be ready to insist upon the proper inspection of milk, meat, and dairy cattle, in order to prevent the communication of tuberculosis through infected food.

**Tuberculosis and Life Insurance.** In the *Journal of Tuberculosis* for October, Dr.

Charles Denison proposes an aggressive crusade against tuberculosis, and enumerates at length the details which must be exhaustively considered before we are in position to master this greatest pestilence of the human race. In this connection he has touched upon the financial bearing which such a crusade would have upon life insurance companies, maintaining that the actual saving to the insurance companies by increasing the average longevity of policy-holders would justify the companies in heavily subsidizing such a crusade, if not actually inaugurating it on their own responsibility.

Life insurance companies in the United States alone have paid out over \$200,000,000 because of deaths from this preventable disease. The success of a tuberculosis crusade before these death losses occurred, to which tuberculosis has contributed, would have meant at least a ten per cent increase in the longevity of the implicated policy-holders, or probably two years or more increase in the average longevity of all the insured. This means not only two years' longer use by the companies of the money invested in reserves, but two additional annual premiums all round—a total saving which would be ample, even in ten years, to liberally pay for the elucidation

of all the questions involved in the study of this subject.

Dr. Denison is aware that there is little likelihood of the insurance companies taking up such a proposition. He therefore turns, first to private charitable initiative, urging that some individual or individuals provide sufficient funds to start the necessary investigation of the subject. He hopes that ultimately the general government will see the wisdom of having as one of its regular bureaus a well-supported national health board to supervise such investigation, and to aid in whatever way possible the actual prevention of the disease.

**Wise Limits of Negro Education.** Booker T. Washington's report for 1899 to the trustees of the Tuskegee

normal and industrial institute is one of the most interesting of the many interesting contributions which Mr. Washington has made to the discussion of the negro's future in this country. The school with which his name has become inseparably associated was organized in a little shanty in 1881, with but one teacher and thirty students. The average attendance during the past year was 1,164 students, and the institution employs eighty-eight officers and teachers. Writing from the experience of this long term of years, given to the development of one of the most remarkable educational growths in the country, Mr. Washington says:

Much valuable time has been lost and money spent in vain because too many negroes have not been educated with the idea of fitting them to do

well things that they could get to do. In too many cases, where mere literary education alone has been given the negro youth, it has resulted in an exaggerated estimate of his importance in the world and an increase of wants which his education has not fitted him to supply.

The surest way for him to reach the highest positions is to fill well at the present time what are termed by the world the more humble positions. This will give him a foundation upon which to stand while securing what are called the more exalted positions. The negro has the right to study law, but in the end we shall succeed soonest in producing a number of successful lawyers by preparing first a number of intelligent, thrifty farmers, mechanics, and housekeepers to support the lawyers. The want of the proper direction in the use of the negro's education results in tempting too many to live mainly by their wits, without producing anything that is of real value to the world, or to live mainly by politics. The negro has the right to enter politics, but I believe that his surest road to political preferment that will mean anything is to make himself of such supreme service to the community in which he lives that political honors will in time be conferred upon him. Almost from the beginning we have kept in mind at Tuskegee the giving of thorough mental and religious training, and at the same time, along with it, such industrial training as will enable the student to appreciate the dignity of labor, and become self-supporting and valuable as a producing factor, keeping in mind the occupations open in the south for employment. This institution has now reached the point where it can begin to judge of the value of its work as seen in its gradu-

ates. Some years ago we noted the fact, for example, that there was quite a movement in the south to organize and start dairies. Soon after this we opened a dairy school, where a number of young men could receive training in the best and most scientific methods of dairying. At present we have calls, mainly from southern white men, for more than twice as many dairymen as we can supply, and the reports indicate that our young men are giving the highest satisfaction, and are fast changing and improving the dairy product in the communities where they have gone. I can not but believe, and my daily observation and experience confirm me in it, that as we continue placing men and women of intelligence, religion, modesty, conscience, and skill in every community in the south, who will prove by actual results their value to the community, this will constitute the solution for many of our present political and sociological difficulties.

Mr. Washington asks for an addition to the present endowment of the school, \$68,000, sufficient to make the total at least \$500,000. Those who emphasize the importance of religious influence in the training of the negro will be interested in the statement that of a graduating class this year of seventy-seven "all are Christians except one."

I believe in so-called charity as a matter of business. If I owned all of New York, for instance, and cared not one iota for human life, I should even then, as a matter of business, help the unfortunate to the full extent of my power.—*Nathan Straus.*

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## THE HUDSON HOUSE OF REFUGE FOR WOMEN.

The house of refuge for women at Hudson, N. Y., was established by an act of the legislature in 1881. It was opened for the reception of inmates in May, 1887. The class of inmates to be received has been substantially uniform from the beginning, with an exception to be noticed later. The state charities law governing the institution provides that "a female, between the ages of fifteen and thirty years, convicted by any magistrate of petit larceny, habitual drunkenness, of being a common prostitute, of frequenting disorderly houses or houses of prostitution, or of a misdemeanor, and who is not insane, nor mentally or physically incapable of being substantially benefited," may be committed. The ages have varied, having been at one time twelve to twenty-five years as limits. The term of commitment was, until recently, five years; but by a bill passed this year it has been reduced to three years. The managers have always had the power to discharge inmates before the expiration of sentence, so that the indeterminate sentence, with a three-year maximum, is the principle governing detention.

In 1896 an act of the legislature provided that any woman over sixteen years of age convicted of felony and sentenced for less than a year might be sent to a house of refuge. This law, introducing an entirely

different element, was, in the opinion of many, an unfortunate one. There are thus two classes sent to the institution, misdemeanants for an indeterminate sentence that may last three years, and felons sent for a definite short term. The two classes need different treatment and ought not to be in contact. Further, although intended for those for whom there was some hope of reform, there have been committed many hardened incorrigible cases. There is no provision of law by which such cases may be transferred to the prison for women, so that, unlike Elmira, Hudson has not been able to remove those whose presence was an injury to the other inmates and for whom little could be done. Again, the crowded condition of the Newark custodial home for feeble-minded women has prevented the transfer of some who were of low intellect. Among so many abnormal women there naturally were also from time to time some insane.

The classes actually in the institution when the present board took charge were four: some insane; some feeble-minded; some incorrigible cases; and a large number for whom there was much reason to believe that proper reformatory treatment would accomplish great good. The great majority of the latter class were sentenced for sexual offences. In some of these cases the real cause



was an excessive sexual inclination not infrequent at their age; while in many others bad surroundings and a little weakness of character were the explanation.

The arrangement of the buildings is based on the cottage idea. There is a prison with cells and all the features of an ordinary prison. It is as bad in arrangement as could be imagined, and has been subjected to severe criticism from the time it was erected. Constant communication can not be prevented, and contamination and disorder spread easily. The building is unsanitary and demoralizing. It ought to be entirely reconstructed. Besides this structure, there are seven cottages containing from twenty to thirty-five inmates, one of them being devoted to mothers with children. The administration building and hospital also contain inmates. Each of the cottages has its own kitchen and laundry, in order that as much instruction in domestic work as is possible may be given. There is a large chapel and an industrial building, with others of less importance.

The house of refuge has never had a good reputation among those competent to judge. The state board of charities, very soon after it was opened in 1890, said that "liberty amounting to license" existed in the prison and that "stricter discipline" was needed. These criticisms of lax discipline and a lack of industrial training, with others, were frequently repeated by the board. Other competent specialists who knew of its condition spoke in severe criticism of its management.

In the spring of the present year Governor Roosevelt appointed two new members in place of two whose terms had expired. The subsequent resignation of three other managers and appointment of their successors made a board with one exception entirely new. Of the last board all but one lived in the immediate neighborhood of the refuge; of the present board three lived at some distance from local feeling and interest. Before the new board had qualified and taken control, much attention was directed to the institution by the sensational escape of two inmates one night early in July. These girls, who, although bad cases, had had their escape made possible by various special privileges, carried away much clothing and money belonging to the two principal officers. As another escape had taken place through carelessness only a short time previously, criticism of the management was natural. Just at this time Comptroller Morgan published certain charges against the various institutions of the state, but especially implicating Hudson. He specified laxness of administration, cruel punishments, carelessness in bathing inmates afflicted with venereal disease, and extravagance. Much to its surprise and regret the new board found itself face to face with the necessity for investigation and reorganization. The state board of charities, while promising all the support it could give, left the managers unhampered.

It took but a short time to find out that the long-continued criticisms, as well as the newer ones,

were too evidence leading of themselves reported by from the from the and from testimony enough to tent. And were the lessness, a formance inmates a cers in wa parties he and hearing in leaving where it c special p whose rec create a shown; in ness in th use of co quate and of the sta work to work dom fixed by t ent for h allowing s formed fo violation c making a the regula office; no force of c system of tion of in tem existe

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were too well founded. The chief evidence was the admissions of the leading officers of the institution themselves, although this was supported by much information learned from the state comptroller's office, from the state board of charities, and from under-officers. Inmate testimony was not considered reliable enough to warrant its use to any extent. Among the evils brought out were the following: laxness, carelessness, and slovenliness in the performance of duty by officers; use of inmates as personal servants of officers in ways open to objection; wine parties held by officers in the sight and hearing of inmates; carelessness in leaving wine, used in cooking, where it could be drunk by inmates; special privileges granted inmates whose records were bad, tending to create a feeling that partiality was shown; inexcusable lack of cleanliness in the housekeeping; improper use of corporal punishment; inadequate and careless records; violation of the state constitution in allowing work to be done for sale; having work done for managers at prices fixed by the superintendent dependent for her position upon them; allowing some services to be performed for a manager free of charge; violation of the civil service law in making appointments; disregard of the regulations of the comptroller's office; no proper organization of the force of employes; a very faulty system of classification and promotion of inmates—if indeed any system existed.

It seemed necessary to make some

changes in the staff, and the two highest officers were removed. Under the White law the appointment to the superintendency was to all intents and purposes taken from the hands of the managers, who were obliged to accept the person certified to by the commission as highest. During the delay incident to the examination the managers endeavored to the best of their ability to remove the evils above described. Corporal punishment was forbidden and cellular confinement with restricted diet substituted. Stricter rules for the guards and other officers were introduced. Inmates, so far as was possible, were brought to the institution by women officers instead of by men. Parole was given with great care and to homes for which good vouchers were secured. Many lesser matters were attended to and some progress made in arranging for the introduction of better reformatory methods. The new superintendent, appointed from the civil service lists, although well qualified in some ways, had had no reformatory experience.

Early in September some unrest and disorder showed itself among the inmates, and several attempts at escape were made. None of these were successful. October 8 an outbreak took place in the prison building. Glass was broken, beds destroyed, and other damage done. Although the accounts of the outbreak in many papers were greatly exaggerated, it was serious, and the sheriff of the county with his deputies was called in to restore

order. No second outbreak, reported by some papers, occurred. Out of 275 inmates less than fifty were concerned in any way, and many of these fifty joined simply in the shouting and noise. In two or three cottages there was some restlessness, and a very few cottage girls became disorderly. Nearly all showed a self-restraint and self-control which under the circumstances were very creditable.

The statement was made at once by friends of the old administration, and accepted by many newspapers, that the outbreak was due to the abolition of corporal punishment, to lax discipline, and to the introduction of sentimental methods by the new administration. The members of the board were attacked not only collectively, but individually, and were charged with having said or done things which had never been said or done. No new methods had been introduced, much to the board's regret, because of some temporary hindrances which they could not control. The only "sentimental" thing done, if it be such, was the abolition of the former punishment. In the report made to the state board of charities in August the following statement was made—some weeks before the outbreak:

In taking up the subject of punishments we recognize the difficulty connected with enforcing discipline over the class of young women who constitute the population of this institution. We are well aware that among those who have given the most time and thought to disciplinary methods in reformatory institutions

there is a difference of opinion as to the advisability of corporal punishment. Nevertheless, there is no justification of the use of corporal punishment as it has been administered at Hudson.

It was then specified that it had been inflicted contrary to the rules of the state board of charities, with secrecy and deception, by officers in passion, without the presence of the superintendent, for trivial offences, without accurate record. In another place in the report to the state board was the following statement:

The practice of "smashing out" has long prevailed. . . . At such times window glass, transoms, door panels—anything that can be reached before the girl can be restrained—are broken. When placed in confinement for such offences girls are apt to scream and sing all night. It will undoubtedly be a long time before such traditions and practices of such long continuance can be eradicated.

And again,  
We appreciate the difficulties connected with any reformatory work and particularly when attempted for the class for which this house of refuge was designed.

It is evident that the assertions that the board acted without any full appreciation of the problems before it, and that it was not acquainted with the testimony in favor of corporal punishment, are without foundation.

Throughout the early history of the institution inmates had secured transfer from one building to some other, which seemed to them preferable, by actual disorder or threats of "smashing out" unless their

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wishes were complied with. Girls would commit some offence so that they might be sent to the prison for punishment—the prison being a place where particularly good times could be had. The last administration had tried to stop this practice by using the strap. It was felt by the new administration that it must be stopped, and orders were given to transfer no such cases to the prison for punishment. As has been mentioned, some of the worst girls had special privileges. Some troublesome girls had been promised parole if they would be orderly for a certain time—not as a part of a general system applying to all, but as a personal thing.

When the class of thoroughly bad inmates found that they were in these various ways to be held strictly, and when they found that they would not be paroled until they had been tested by a standard applied to all alike, they showed their displeasure by the outbreak, undoubtedly encouraged somewhat by the knowledge that the lash would no longer be applied to their bare backs. Through too great forbearance there had been left in the prison as chief officer one whom the former board had voted to remove and whose discipline had been frequently criticised. The desire to give her an opportunity to do better resulted in no improvement, and during her temporary absence, while another officer had been placed in charge by the new superintendent, the outbreak occurred. Instead of being an

outbreak encouraged by laxer treatment it was a reaction against stricter discipline. Corporal punishment had been replaced by other punishments as severe as the construction of the buildings made possible.

Without considering the question of the desirability of corporal punishment for men, it may be noticed that at Mrs. Johnson's famous prison for women at Sherborn, at the Auburn prison for women in New York state, at the Albion house of refuge for women organized under the same law as Hudson, in the English prisons, and in numerous other places women are controlled without whipping. These are all successful institutions. If they can dispense with the strap, Hudson ought to be able to do so. Feeble-minded and insane girls<sup>1</sup> should be transferred to places where they can be properly treated. Isolation cells have been constructed to prevent communication while in punishment. Some of these are as light as possible, such having been found very effective in one or two places. Others are either dark or lighted as seems desirable. More outdoor exercise and recreation than have been customary in the past are essential, as the state board has said over and over in its reports. Better classification, more systematic promotion, careful parole, a continuance and if possible an extension of the present industrial training, manual training,—are all desirable. Underneath all the reformatory work in this sense must be discipline, secured not by

<sup>1</sup> See editorial note, page 420.

fear of punishment solely, but by justice, impartiality, decision, firmness, certainty as to reward and punishment, strength of character,

and good example in the officers in contact with the inmates. The Hudson house of refuge was designed to be a reformatory, not a prison.

## THE NEW JERSEY STATE INDUSTRIAL SCHOOL.

The problems of discipline and management which have arisen in connection with the Hudson reformatory for adult and criminal women are necessarily more complex than those which confront the trustees of the New Jersey state industrial school for girls at Trenton. At the latter institution the inmates are, for the most part, young girls, admitted between the ages of ten and sixteen, and remaining under the care of the trustees until they are of age. Such difficulties of management, therefore, as have recently been experienced in this institution can not justly be attributed to the character of the inmates.

The history of the institution under the superintendent preceding the present incumbent bears this statement out, if one may infer anything from the favorable reputation which the school bore at that time. It would be impracticable to compare at length the methods which met general approval then with those which, under the present régime, have caused so much public dissatisfaction. Two points of comparison, however, may advantageously be noted. The first is, that under the former management men were never called in to assist in corporal restraint of inmates, except in

cases of insanity. If severe punishment became necessary, it was inflicted in the superintendent's apartment, in the presence of no one but superintendent and culprit. The second point is, that at this time the girls seem to have been allowed a greater amount of recreation than now. For instance, a playroom had been provided for them in the basement. This has since been abolished.

Upon the resignation of the former superintendent on account of ill health, and the installation of the present incumbent, changes began to take place which caused unfavorable public comment. The institution is constructed on the congregated plan, and the difficulties always attendant upon effective reformation in institutions of this construction became increasingly apparent. The trustees employed one of their number, at a small salary, to manage the institution. The entire control of the school was thus virtually in the hands of the superintendent and this one trustee. Just how much responsibility the remaining trustees took upon themselves is not clear, but from the evidence it is to be feared that, as in so many institutions, they permitted their office to be merely honorary, and bore no active share in the government, or

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interest in the welfare, of the school. It has been alleged,—and this of itself would indicate a serious shirking of duty by the trustees,—that the placing of the administrative functions of the board in the hands of a local member resulted in an undue distribution of the institution's patronage among certain local dealers; but this matter, whether true or not, is of less interest than the manner in which the discipline of the school thus was left to the apparently unrestricted discretion of the superintendent.

Serious overt acts on the part of the latter while administering punishment led to charges of cruelty. Thus it came about eighteen months ago that the attention of the state charities aid association was called to the need of an investigation of the institution, and to the unfortunate position of the board of trustees, who seemed hopelessly divided in their opinions as to its management. The secretary of the association, by order of the board, laid the matter before the governor. He, with the "managing trustee" and other members of the board, visited the institution and undertook an investigation. Teachers and employes were called upon for testimony, but, it seems, were allowed to give evidence only along certain prescribed lines. The result of the investigation, thus conducted, was that no facts of importance were elicited. Inmates of the institution were not called upon, either at this or at subsequent hearings, to give their testimony.

Last August the matter again came

before the public, and the president of the board of trustees immediately requested the governor to make an investigation. It is needless to detail the testimony brought out at this investigation. Four specific points were proved: (1) that the superintendent was unable to administer punishment without the aid of the farmer or his assistant; (2) that girls while in the dungeons were fed on bread and water for days—in two cases, for two weeks; (3) that the attending physician was not asked, or allowed, to examine these girls either before, during, or after their punishment; (4) that there had been disturbances throughout the institution, in consequence of the calling in of the hired man to hold girls while the superintendent administered corporal punishment in public.

The expression "dungeons" above is not a misnomer. Five of these cells had been built in the basement, at the request of the superintendent, and were in frequent use. The only way to ventilate them is through a slit, six inches long and two inches wide, cut through the foundation of the building.

Under the pressure of public opinion, the board of trustees, which was ultimately responsible for the abuses which had been proved, resigned. The superintendent, however, is still in office. The governor of the state has appointed a new board, none of whose members is credited with any experience in reformatory problems or in the methods of dealing with them.

So far as can be seen, the policy

of this new board will be to retain the present superintendent, smooth over as much as possible the recent experiences of the institution, and by close personal attention to the details of management attempt to bring the school out of the confusion into which severe and honest public criticism, magnified by yellow journals, has thrown both officers and inmates. What success will result from this policy is a matter for history to determine. The new board having actually taken hold, nothing is to be gained by predicting failure for it before it has clearly shown what it can do.

For the information of the governor of the state, and for the guidance of the new board, should they

care to avail themselves of this service, the state charities aid association sent to a large number of experienced managers and superintendents of reformatory institutions, and to some few other individuals whose constant oversight of such institutions has given them the right to speak authoritatively, a number of questions regarding matters of discipline and management pertinent to the present situation in New Jersey. The replies to these questions were full, and in most cases carefully prepared. They were forwarded to the governor in a special report. Their substance has been made the basis of the following study of discipline and management in juvenile reformatories.

## DISCIPLINE AND MANAGEMENT OF JUVENILE REFORMATORIES.

The replies sent to the New Jersey state charities aid association, in response to its request for information explained in the preceding pages, are particularly timely, inasmuch as the problems which have arisen in connection with the New Jersey industrial school are very far from being peculiar to that institution alone. As has already been seen, the Hudson reformatory for women has had to meet questions of much the same character, though of greater intensity. Scarcely less serious is the reported state of affairs at the Iowa reform school for girls at Mitchellville, which only a few

weeks ago was the scene of a riot quite as interesting as that at Hudson. Such riots are far from rare in some of our institutions, though generally they are of less violent character than those occurring at Mitchellville and Hudson and threatened at Trenton. The value in this connection of the replies received by the New Jersey association as an authoritative, while at the same time unstudied, consensus of expert opinion on the problems which lie underneath such unrest in institutions of this kind has led the REVIEW, with the permission of the association, to reproduce their sub-

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stance in the study which follows. It should be stated that information of this character is frequently called for, and there are doubtless a dozen governors and state boards having on their files series of replies to such questions fully as interesting and valuable as this one, and including the opinions of some well known experts who chance not to appear here. We have chosen the present series as the basis for our study merely because of its timeliness, and also because of its evident faithfulness to actual conditions rather than to the ideals of the writers. Most of the answers bear on their face the indication of having been written under the usual pressure of routine duties, merely to oblige the correspondent and be through with them as soon as possible with justice to the subject. Under such conditions it is natural for men to write the plain facts, without conscious selection to support one theory above another. We have endeavored to carry this faithfulness to actual conditions into the present study. The Editors have definite views regarding the questions considered. But these have not been allowed to enter into this paper, which is, as far as possible, an impartial presentation of all the opinions submitted to the state charities aid association.

It is also noteworthy that all the replies were made having in mind conditions obtaining particularly in girls' schools. While the general principles for all classes should be the same, yet detailed methods of discipline which might hold good

for boys or for more mature delinquents of either sex can not without some reservation be applied to the discipline of girls. This fact most of the association's correspondents have considered.

Names of institutions and writers are omitted, our purpose being to give the general consensus of opinion on this subject, rather than the ideas of particular schools or individuals. Opinions are not quoted except as being typical. Where the local situation in any particular institution would serve to modify in any way the opinion purporting to represent that institution, due weight has been given to this fact by the Editors in preparing the study.

The questions of the state charities aid association were sixteen in number, but may be grouped for our purposes under these general topics: the principles of discipline, usual methods of discipline, corporal punishment, the use of confinement cells, obscenity as a factor in the reformatory problem, incorrigible and unmanageable inmates, trained service in the management of institutions, and the congregate, as opposed to what is known as the cottage, system for institutions.

In one of the better known and more successful state institutions for the reformation of delinquent boys there has been prepared for the use of officers of the school an elaborate circular of instructions regarding methods and principles of discipline. For convenience we shall make this set of instructions the basis of our study, as it treats more elaborately

than other replies received the questions under consideration. The policy followed in this school will be compared with those adopted in other institutions. In certain details of discipline no two will be found exactly to agree. On the other hand, in some matters there will be found an almost unanimous consensus of opinion. It should be understood that the prominence given to the policy of this one particular school indicates merely that it is typical, and by no means conveys an indorsement of the methods of the school above those of several other institutions whose success has been quite as marked. Some disadvantage will follow from the fact that the school chosen as our type is for boys alone. Still, as has already been said, we think that all experienced reformatory workers will agree with us that the same general principles underlie the methods of discipline for both sexes.

**Principles of Discipline.**

The first matter for consideration is the general principles which underlie discipline. We quote:

By "good discipline" is understood prompt and cheerful compliance on the part of the pupil with the rules of the school and the instructions of the officers in charge. As all stable government rests ultimately in the consent of the governed, so in school discipline the best results are obtained when the pupils recognize the reasonableness of the requirements and the necessity of compliance with them for their own good. In enforcing discipline resource should not be had to coercive measures until it is plain

that the pupil will not listen to reason. Authority must be maintained at all hazards, but a firm insistence upon submission to wholesome restraint is entirely consistent with temperate speech and dignified bearing. A quick-tempered boy will be goaded into rebellion by nagging or hasty accusations. When resource to punishment becomes necessary to secure obedience the state law and the by-law of the trustees must be strictly observed. [These will be quoted later on.]

Nothing but rebellion or personal assault will justify an officer in laying violent hands upon a recalcitrant pupil. The officer who finds it necessary, except under extraordinary and exceptional circumstances, to resort to physical force, will be requested to find employment elsewhere. The most efficient means of discipline, aside from personal influence and example of the officers, is a judicious use of the credit system. [An explanation of the credit system as employed at this school will appear later in the study.] Encouragement and commendation, when it can honestly be given, will be more effective than adverse criticism. Keep the boy in a hopeful frame of mind. If you can keep him busy and interested, little will need to be said about discipline.

**Prevention.**

Perhaps the most important consideration in connection with this question is the one touched upon in the last words of the preceding paragraph,—how to prevent, rather than how to administer, punishment. We quote from one or two other replies:

The cardinal principle of the institution is to keep every inmate occupied with work, school, or play from rising until bed-time. When this can be done, there is little need for punishment.

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We work by incentives and preventives, rather than by prescribed punishments.

Another writer quotes approvingly the remark of a president of the state board of charities of Illinois to the effect that punishment is never necessary where obedience is enforced by personal observation and influence.

For instance, if a boy on a farm is told to find the cow and replies, "Yes, sir," and does not go, the father must not take his eye off of him, but in a moment must repeat the command, "John, go now and find the cow;" until the boy does as he is told, and in this way forms the habit of prompt and cheerful obedience.

It is the giving of orders and then not seeing that they are obeyed, but leaving the question of obedience to the person under authority that creates the necessity for punishment on account of disobedience. It matters, therefore, very little to me whether the punishments are kindly or cruel, just or excessive. Any person who is obliged to punish in order to enforce obedience is so far forth unfit for command anywhere in life.

At the same time it must be remembered that there are incorrigible children as well as incorrigible adults, who have never learned to understand the language of kindness, and who must be compelled to obey by the use of physical force just as lower animals are.

Twice already we have found it mentioned that resort to force, under anything but extraordinary circumstances, is considered a sign of incompetence on the part of the officer. To this effect again:

The officers understand that when

they bring up a case for [corporal] discipline, it is a confession of at least partial failure on their part.

So unanimous is the agreement that discipline must be maintained, under all conditions, that it is not necessary to detail what is said on this point.

Having used such preventive measures as are possible, the question of actual discipline is now before us. First, there is a strong feeling that discipline should be individualized. References are made in many of the replies to the fact that punishment which is just and effective in one case may be the opposite in another.

The proper view of punishment, both corporal and other, is to regard it as treatment, just as truly as medicine, surgery, massage, or dentistry. It must be administered, not as penalty, but as an alternative to produce a change of acts, or rather of the emotions which prompt the acts. Discipline, therefore, should be individualized. For treatment which might be necessary and salutary in one case might be cruelty in another.

But the individualizing of punishment implies the existence of, and the ability to exercise, a wise judgment on the part of the disciplining officer such as is not easy to find.

Could we only find the ideal superintendent, with judgment and heart, we might safely trust the punishments to her, but, alas, these qualities can not always be bought.

Notwithstanding this, about one-third of the institutions consulted indicate that they have no prescribed system of punishment whatever, from which we are to infer, presum-

Individualized  
Discipline.

ably, that the punishment is left completely to the discretion of the official at the head of the institution. An exception should be made to this, that corporal punishment is forbidden in several institutions whose superintendents otherwise have no prescribed procedure for punishment.

**Responsibility  
of Subordinate  
Officers.**

Individualization of discipline necessarily implies too that considerable discretion is permitted to subordinate officers in the correction of small offences, just as in the case of the ordinary school, where simple infringements of rules are disciplined by the teacher directly in charge rather than by the principal. In some institutions, however, not even simple offences may be punished by subordinates. Almost without exception in the case of those offences requiring the more severe modes of discipline, the punishment either is taken entirely out of the hands of the subordinate officer or is inflicted by him only after report to the superintendent, and, in some schools, investigation by him or his deputy.

**Record of  
Punishments.**

The question of reporting cases for discipline to the superintendent brings up the matter of recording punishments, which may be touched upon in passing. Five institutions state that they keep no record of punishments. One, which, it may be added, is a school of unquestioned success, explains:

Our ladies believe it wrong to keep a record against the child. They desire that she look not mournfully

into the past, but should wisely improve the present.

Aside from these instances, there seems to be unanimous agreement as to the value of keeping exact record of punishments, not only for the child's sake, but as a matter of protection for the officer; that he may thus have an exact statement at hand of the particulars of any act of discipline for which he may be called to account later. We quote:

A punishment book is kept, in which every punishment, no matter how slight, is recorded. It is kept in the superintendent's office, open to the inspection of the trustees, state board of charities, and any other state official or person having a right to see it.

Another quotation:

Each manager of a cottage keeps a record of all punishments in her cottage, and the superintendent keeps a general book in which she records the punishments of every family. A report is made by each manager monthly, which is examined by the board of guardians, and kept on file.

There are numerous other instances in which punishment books are kept, generally under the supervision of the head of the institution. Where no book is kept specially for this purpose, officers are required to prepare daily or weekly reports which include records of punishment, and thus the purpose of a punishment book is fulfilled. In a number of institutions the record of punishments is regularly examined by the board of trustees or managers. In one case a record of each girl's conduct is kept, and this is

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**Minor  
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read before the superintendent and the whole school at the end of each month. It is stated that this has a good effect in keeping the girls in line.

#### Minor Offences.

In going back to the original question, that is, the infliction of punishments, we shall do well to bear in mind the statement of one writer, who says:

We take up the little offences at once, believing the larger ones will not occur.

Whatever may be the certainty of the conclusion in this statement, it is at least reasonable to believe that there is an advantage in dealing promptly with the first slight infringements of discipline. We may quote the statement of one superintendent, who says:

We never punish a girl for a first offence. On this occasion the superintendent talks to the girl, and tries to make her see the gravity of her offence. There are, of course, many upon whom this will have no effect. We then try, at first light punishment, increasing it subsequently with each repeated offence.

Doubtless some such plan as this, consciously or unconsciously, is acted upon by almost all superintendents and officers.

Among the lighter punishments resorted to in discipline, though perhaps the most effective, two recur frequently. One is the deprivation of customary privileges. The other is loss of credits, in a system of credit marks found in use, in one form or another, in a large number of institutions.

#### Loss of Privileges.

Deprivation of privileges covers so extensive a range of possibilities that it is practically impossible to give an adequate treatment of it here. The principle involved can be briefly stated as this: The constrained monotony of life in the average institution places a high premium upon anything which may serve to vary in the least the ordinary routine. Such things as unexpected entertainments, a new suit, or a new garment, or even a new ribbon, the presence of a bunch of flowers on the dining-table, the privilege of drawing books from a library, the wearing of a badge or garment indicative of a grade of advancement above one's lower fellows—all these are among the prized privileges of institution life. The judicious deprivation of one or several such privileges is often the most effective possible punishment for offences large as well as small.

#### Merits.

The system of merits used at the school from which we are quoting most at length illustrates clearly the principle which underlies almost all credit systems, as used at the various institutions. We quote from the school's instructions to officers in this regard:

Each boy upon his arrival and assignment to a cottage shall be debited with 5,000 marks. He may gain credits daily to offset these marks so that his account shall be balanced at the end of nine months and his name be presented to the trustees at their next meeting thereafter. In that event the boy may gain his release (probationary) within ten months of his coming to the school.

For good conduct and faithful work a daily credit is given of	10
For good work in school and good conduct in school an additional credit each day of	5
For satisfactory monthly examination upon school work an additional	25

If full credits of 425 are gained a further allowance of 25 may be given, making a total of 450 for one month.

If full credits are gained for three consecutive months an extra allowance of 150 shall be given; if for six months, 300; if for nine months, the account shall be balanced.

For example:

30 days' good conduct and good work,	300
20 days' good conduct and good work in school,	100
For successful monthly examination,	25
Extra for gaining full credits,	25
	450
Three months at 450,	1,350
Extra for clear record,	150
	1,500
Three months at 450,	1,350
Extra for six months' clear record,	300
	1,650
Three months at 450,	1,350
Extra for nine months' clear record,	500
	1,850
	5,000

The teacher shall determine the school credits and report the same at the end of each month to the master of the cottage from which the boy comes, to be included in the monthly report of credits of the boys to be sent to the superintendent.

For serious misdemeanor, loss of credits may be assigned as follows:

Fighting,	30
Injuring or defacing books, clothing, or any property,	30
Persistent carelessness,	10
Willful disobedience,	10
Impudence and sauciness,	30
Using or distributing tobacco,	30
Lying,	100
Swearing,	30
Stealing,	300
Eloping, attempting or aiding, loss of all credits.	

These demerits should be used with great care. It is often easy to discourage a boy so that he ceases to gain credits. If it appears to you that less than the number of demerits in the foregoing list will be adequate to the case, use your discretion. It must be kept in mind that marking is only a device. Save the boy, whatever becomes of the marking.

It will be noticed that the incentives to good conduct, and discouragements to wrongdoing, provided by the system outlined above cover a considerable proportion of all disciplinary problems which may present themselves. In other schools where a system of marks is used demerits are made to serve over a more or less similarly wide range. It is not possible to go into this matter more in detail than has already been done. It will be observed, however, that the school from whose system we are quoting reserves loss of credit for what are termed "serious misdemeanors." For the correction of offences which do not justify demeriting, certain expedients are resorted to, some of which it will be worth while to consider.

In a number of institutions some one or several modes of punishment are based upon the principle of requiring the culprit to assume, and maintain for some length of time, a constrained position, such as toeing the line, or standing facing the wall, etc.

The term line as applied to discipline is in bad odor with the trustees and that part of the public that concerns itself with the doings of the school. It suggests standing

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in a more or less constrained position and is criticised from a sanitary standpoint of view. You are requested to avoid this form of punishment. Instead of line you may use any of the following: (1) sitting alone, speak to no one; (2) working while other others play (best way where practicable); (3) walking a measured track, three miles being an hour's work; (4) wheeling or carrying stones from one point to another: the one doing it should make two miles an hour, including picking up and laying down the stones.

Boys shall not be made to stand up in sleeping hall as a means of discipline. Discipline for sleeping hall offences should be very strict. Avoid threatening a boy with a whipping. If the superintendent in influence or remonstrance is to count for anything with a boy it must not be understood that he is a whipping machine to be set in operation to suit the convenience of the officer. Avoid all unusual punishment, particularly any which requires constrained positions. When at an end of your resources come to the superintendent with your difficulties.

What has been stated so far about minor forms of punishment practically covers the various expedients which have been thought of by institution superintendents. One or two others, however, may be added:

We sometimes place a tag on a girl for carelessness or forgetfulness, inscribed, "I forgot," but never inscribed, "Liar," or "Thief."

Another punishment, which hardly comes under the subject of confinement cells, is requiring the child to stay in its own room. This seems to be resorted to in a few cases. Another unique scheme, which comes perhaps more closely under the topic

of confinement cells than here, is what is called a "punishment chair." This will be explained under the latter topic, though in its use it is applied to a much wider range of offences than those for which confinement would usually be deemed necessary.

We next come to the difficult question of corporal punishment. In nine, or about one-third, of the institutions represented in the replies, corporal punishment is absolutely prohibited, either as a matter of policy on the part of the superintendent or by official regulation, legislative or otherwise. Fully one-half of those using it deprecate unreservedly the necessity for this method. In fact, it can not be inferred from any one of the replies in hand that the writer feels that corporal punishment is desirable as a regular mode of discipline. The opinion of those who advocate its use in certain rare cases may be typified by the following:

Physical disciplinary treatment is now very rare with us, although we never assert that it is never wise nor useful. We have a few boys, and perhaps one or two girls, who can only be kept within bounds with the knowledge, and sometimes the experience, that sharp physical pain will under some circumstances follow certain conduct. To refuse to use physical treatment in these cases would not be kindness.

We have already mentioned the experienced difficulty of institution trustees in securing as superintendent a person to whose discretion questions of punishment may be entrusted unreservedly. We quote in

#### Corporal Punishment.

this connection the opinion of a writer who has had extensive experience in the supervision of such institutions. This may explain why many trustees, while acknowledging the advantage of corporal punishment under certain conditions, have deemed it essential to exclude this method of discipline entirely.

I should consider that corporal punishment, meaning by that, whipping, should be absolutely forbidden, although I do think there are individual cases that, perhaps, can be reached in this way more effectively than by any other method. The dangers of abuse are, however, so serious, that I should prefer to forbid corporal punishment altogether.

In one state recently, in response to a very general expression of public opinion, corporal punishment was done away with in the state industrial home for girls. The secretary of the state board which had supervision over the institution watched the results of the experiment carefully. His conclusions follow:

I find that often some of the girls whose standing was good before such action was taken had become incorrigible; that the girls who had been placed out in the state from the institution were making trouble for their guardians, feeling, as I understand they stated, that all that could be done with them would be to send them back to the institution, and there they did not dare to punish them. The abrogation of permission to inflict corporal punishment or solitary confinement [the latter method of punishment was abandoned at the same time with corporal punishment] where necessary, has thus been so disastrous in the effort to

reform, that the board of guardians were compelled to rescind the resolution, and permit, where necessary, and under proper restrictions, corporal punishment and solitary confinement. Our experience shows that it seldom has to be applied, and then the necessity is confined to a few inmates whose names recur constantly on the punishment books. Still in the case of the poor girls who have thus to be controlled, the very fact that corporal punishment can be administered when deemed necessary secures better discipline and order, and that without any necessity of actually applying such severe measures.

It should be said that this experiment extended only over a few months; and the fact is to be carefully considered, that both corporal punishment and solitary confinement were abolished simultaneously.

To the last point mentioned in the quotation may be added the testimony of a superintendent who does not approve of, and is not permitted to use, corporal punishment. "But," she adds, "our girls do not know this." Corporal punishment having been previously allowed at this institution, the girls have no idea but that it is still permissible.

**Restrictions  
Guarding  
Corporal  
Punishment.**

Assuming that it has been determined to administer corporal punishment, the method of procedure and the restrictions guarding its use become of interest. We quote from the by-laws of our typical institution:

Severe punishment should be avoided as far as possible; but when it is found necessary to resort to corporal punishment, it should be inflicted conscientiously and with deliberation, by

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or in the presence of the superintendent or assistant superintendent. In all such cases an officer shall be present as a witness. Such punishment shall never be inflicted in the presence of other inmates.

There are practically no cases to be found among the replies where corporal punishment is permissible to an under officer without the sanction and presence of the superintendent or his deputy. Where it is allowed at all, discretion as to its exercise rests in most cases with the superintendent. But in some schools such severe measures are determined upon only with the consent of the visiting or executive committee of the trustees, and in most cases where this is not true, the punishments received are recorded and come under their cognizance at stated intervals.

Only two cases are mentioned of corporal punishment being inflicted in the presence of inmates. These two instances are explained by the writers as exceptional, and allowed only for the moral effect on certain other inmates. Other writers consider the presence of spectators, other than the necessary official witness, as an unwarrantable and unprofitable shaming of the culprit.

Calling in male employés to assist in disciplining female inmates is condemned by all except two schools in the most emphatic terms. One of these exceptions explains that male assistance has been necessary only in very rare instances,—and it should be stated that this institution, as a reformatory prison for women, receives some of the hardest female

criminals in the country,—and succeeds in reforming most of them. The other instance is that of an institution which in character is at present rather a house of detention than a school for the reform of inmates. It receives both sexes, is superintended by a man, and the department for girls is under the direct charge of a matron. The male assistance in this case is probably that of the superintendent in person. One other institution, not included here, mentions that the matron of the girls' department, who is the wife of the superintendent, has in rare instances to call her husband to assist in discipline. The following typifies the opinion of most of the writers:

As a matter of opinion merely, this being a boys' school, I should think that male assistance in the punishment of girls should be condemned both as unnecessary and degrading.

Another writer suggests:

The incorrigible girl would certainly "act up" a great deal worse in the presence of a male officer than if only women could see her.

We have inadvertently omitted the opinion of one other writer who favors male assistance where necessary:

My opinion is that the reformatory girl should be subdued and conquered, even if it requires the state militia called in.

Passing now to the method of discipline which in some institutions is employed as a substitute for corporal punishment, in some to supplement it, we take up the question of con-

Male  
Assistance.

Solitary  
Confinement.

finement cells. This term is somewhat misleading, inasmuch as there are only a very few institutions,—including the New Jersey industrial school,—which have cells really justifying such a term. Most of those in use are small confinement rooms, generally well lighted, of sufficient size to admit of the required number of cubic feet of air space, and provided either with the usual or with special means of ventilation. The institution we have used as a type speaks of the place in which its boys may be confined as “the lodge.” On the question of confinement the rules of this institution are as follows:

The use of the lodge as a mode of punishment is to be resorted to only after consultation with the superintendent, and with his express sanction and directions. The duration of the boy's confinement shall be definitely fixed by the superintendent at the time of his consigning him to the lodge, and no extension of the time may be made without further sanction of the superintendent. No boy in the lodge for punishment shall be kept on a diet of bread and milk for more than three days, except by direction of the superintendent over his own signature.

No boy shall be kept in the lodge more than three days without being taken out in the twenty-four hours for air and exercise. The period for this shall not be less than one-half hour daily.

In case of absence of the master from the house, the lodge key should always be left with some officer who will remain in the house, for use in case of an emergency. The house should never be left

without an officer if a boy is locked up in the lodge.

A saw and saw-buck are furnished for the use of any boy kept in the lodge more than three days. The two are always to be kept in or at a convenient place near the lodge, and never to be used for any other purpose. Four-foot wood will be furnished, to be sawed into kindling four inches long.

The superintendent, explaining this system of confinement, states:

We have six light rooms which may be thus used for segregating an inmate. They are small, but as light as any sleeping room, and none of them contains less than 800 or 900 cubic feet of space, and all have special facilities for ventilation. In my opinion, a few rooms in which refractory pupils may be placed for reflection, under proper conditions, are not only advisable, but with some dispositions necessary. The period, however, should be short, and the use of the room should be with a great deal of discrimination, else more harm than good will result.

Only four institutions are found which do not resort to confinement in one form or another. One or two other institutions do employ confinement, but simply in the ordinary bedroom of the inmate. All the other institutions represented make use of confinement rooms, mostly light and carefully ventilated, but in one or two cases in the basement of the building.

The question of food under confinement is answered in various ways. Some superintendents state specifically that the food supplied is the same as that furnished to other inmates. In a few cases, as above, a diet of bread and milk for

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a limited period is allowed. Bread and water seems to be used only very rarely, and for not more than two meals of the day. In some cases, as has already been observed, light employment is supplied. It seems, however, that only in rare cases is confinement continued more than two or three days at the outside, and in most cases it is stated that a few hours of quiet solitude is usually sufficient to bring the refractory inmate to terms.

A serious objection to the use of confinement rooms has been noted by several superintendents. This is the danger to the inmate from the opportunity to indulge in personal vice when left alone.

One superintendent uses as a substitute for solitary confinement what she calls a "punishment chair," to which we have referred already.

In one of these chairs a girl can sit in a perfectly natural position, and it folds up around her, leaving her head out so that she can breathe good air. At the same time she can not endanger herself nor any one else. The chairs become very monotonous after a time, and the girls prefer to behave well rather than get a sitting in the chair.

The same writer finds it necessary to use strait jackets in the case of some girls who are "temporarily insane."

The question of obscenity, as a factor in the reformatory problem is recognized by most of the writers as a serious problem. Our typical institution treats the matter in this way:

The best check is healthy public sentiment in the family groups, and this can be brought about only by

having refined officers with good governing powers, and salutary influence of life and example. Get the right officers in the family home, as we call our cottages, and the problem is practically solved. Deprivation of privileges and reproof will generally be found sufficient to correct any occurrences.

In very few institutions is this problem met primarily by discipline. The treatment is rather preventive. On the physical side this treatment may be typified by the following expression:

Fresh air, bodily exercise daily prolonged to a healthful fatigue, constant occupation of body and mind, clean skin, and plain food help to do away with abnormal sensuality.

On the moral side the treatment may be typified by that in a successful institution which emphasizes recreation. In this institution, dancing, music, singing, good literature, a play house, and an abundance of other cheerful amusements help to fill the mind of the child with wholesome thoughts. Actual punishment in cases not checked by these methods often consists simply in placing the girl, if the offence is one of language, on silence with every girl in her group or family. Another method, under other circumstances, is to place the girl under the constant supervision of the matron. Various other plans are resorted to, but there seems to be a consensus of opinion that a fault of this sort needs moral correction rather than discipline or punishment. In some institutions special attention is paid to new inmates, many of whom have been



placed in the institution for immoral conduct of this character, and these new-comers are not allowed to associate with other inmates until they have to some extent come under the influence of the institution. One institution avoids this, and many other causes of trouble which might arise, by not allowing any communication whatever between inmates except general conversation and games, and always under the guidance of an officer of the school.

**Incorrigibility.** Incorrigible and unmanageable girls are generally discovered and treated within a few months of their arrival in the institution. Very few of them give any difficulty after that time. The treatment consists in most cases in keeping them in confinement by themselves until the officers of the school have become somewhat acquainted with them and they with the discipline of the institution. Should an inmate, after the exercise of all efforts, persist in refusing to subject herself to the discipline of the school, at least four institutions have the privilege of transferring her to a state prison or other house of correction, either permanently or until it may seem desirable to give her another trial. It is worth observing that almost every institution of this character receives at some period of its history inmates who are either insane or imbecile. There seems to be no question among the writers that such cases should be promptly transferred, either to the school for feeble-minded or to the insane asylum. In this connection it may be

worth while to quote a well known superintendent of a school for the feeble-minded :

In my opinion, many of the so-called incorrigibles in the reform schools are really imbeciles, some of them mentally feeble, some moral imbeciles. We must reckon with the actual fact that moral imbeciles do exist, people with ordinary mentality but wholly destitute of moral sense. Ignorance or denial of the frequency of this dreadful fact in human nature is a defect in the philosophy that guides the methods and laws of most reform schools.

#### Run-Aways.

Run-aways do not seem to be treated with much severity. Naturally, the punishment in such cases sometimes takes form of solitary confinement until penitence is manifest. A method apparently more satisfactory, as it is mentioned by a considerable number of superintendents, is to greet the returned wanderer with sympathy and kindness, overlooking her offence as much as may be. Very few institutions have such cases occurring frequently in their experience, and generally then only among new-comers to the institution.

#### Trained Service.

The question of trained service in the management of institutions is a matter upon which there is much divided opinion in actual practice. Theoretically, there is no one of the writers but considers that trained service is desirable. The decision hinges on the relative importance of this consideration as compared with personal qualifications like tact and good judgment, sympathy and firmness, such as are entirely inde-

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pendent of any training one may have received. The following expresses the feeling shared quite evidently by all the writers :

I should say that trained service is desirable, but first of all it is necessary to have a broad-minded individual as superintendent, with a trained mind and a considerable faculty for affairs. Oftentimes a person who has grown up in an institution, that is, has institution training, has not had the necessary previous training, and so is narrow, and is not as well fitted for the work as one who may not have had the technical training and experience. In the work of this institution much depends upon the quality of the cottage masters, who in a sense are called to do certain work of superintendence over a group of thirty boys or more. I have, during an experience of over eleven years, tried both those who have had previous experience in institution work as cottage managers, and those who have not. I have often been obliged to seek those who had not had institution training in order to get the mind and attainment that I thought was desirable to have in the position. While it has led oftentimes to much discomfort on my part, I have had, on the whole, better success with the people who had not had previous institution training.

A trustee writes to the same point, evidently out of experience :

Institutional work, especially on the congregate plan, seems to warp sympathies, and has unlimited power to provoke cruelty.

From the opinions given it is clear that if a new incumbent in the office of superintendent or other position in the institution has not had previous experience in similar work, he

will have considerable difficulty for a time, unless the other officers or the trustees of the school take such a helping hand as to bridge over the period until the superintendent can become, in some measure, trained to his work. The question evidently is to be answered not by saying that trained service, or untrained service, one or the other, is preferable, but by saying that the essential requisite is a character by nature adapted to the work, supplemented, either previously to taking the office or, at the institution's serious cost, after entering the office, by practical experience.

#### The Congregate Plan.

The last question asked by the state charities aid association was as to the relative merits of the congregate and cottage systems. Those of the writers who have had opportunities of practical experience or observation of both systems are unanimously in favor of the cottage system. As a conservative explanation of the position of those thus in favor of this plan, we may once more quote the superintendent of our typical institution :

I do not like the congregate plan. It has many advantages from the standpoint of the superintendent, but it has a grave disadvantage in massing several hundred together, who in a sense get to feel that they are a mob, and oftentimes get to be swayed by one common impulse. They are often handled in great groups, and get to feel that they owe no particular individual allegiance, except it be to the superintendent, and in this way get to be

institutionalized in a very undesirable way. I am not as radical as some in my views upon the necessity of the cottage plan, but, all things considered, I believe the best results can be obtained by the use of the cottage plan, and if the groups could be made quite small, say not more than twelve or fifteen with one officer in charge, if girls, a lady, and if small boys, a lady, much better work could be attained than in the congregate system or where the cottage groups are large. The number of officers, if the institution is rightly planned, need not be very much greater with these small groups than with large ones, and if the proper people be employed, the right personal work can be attained and very much better results both for the present and future.

Responsibility of Trustees. One further word remains to be said, about managers, or trustees. Several of the writers have emphasized the supreme importance of intelligent supervision for such institutions. In no way can the work of the superintendent be made more effective than by the steady, experienced co-operation of a sympathetic board of managers. The trustees of an institution who neglect their duties, or who consider their office merely a formal function to be discharged once in so many months, are severely condemned as equally reprehensible for any failure in the institution's success with the officials who have immediate oversight.

## THE ESSENTIAL WORK OF A JUVENILE REFORMATORY.<sup>1</sup>

BY F. H. NIBECKER.

The former idea of benefiting children who do not yield kindly to the usual conditions of juvenile life and education was a retreat, an asylum, a place shut off from the world where temptation would be impossible. This idea was embodied in the names of all the oldest and most honorable institutions of our country for juvenile delinquents, they being called "refuges."

The next step in advance was shown when the educational idea was recognized, and the next generation of institutions of the kind were called "reform schools." This

was a decided evidence of progress over the old idea expressed in the former name, but it dealt unconsciously with a result which was aimed at rather than with the work that the institutions attempted to do. It was psychologically wrong, because it did not recognize the true condition of the child's mind and presupposed a direct work of renovation, a kind of making over of the mental and moral condition of the child, which later consideration of the problem has proven to be wide of the mark.

And now institutions founded for

<sup>1</sup> Based on an address delivered by the author on "founders' day" at the house of refuge, Glen Mills, Pa., of which he is superintendent.—*The Editors.*

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the class of pupils we are accustomed to receive, which our grandfathers sent to refuges and our fathers to reform schools, are simply called "schools," with no particular designation as to character unless it be one equally faulty and partial with those already discarded, namely, that of "industrial schools."

Our work is purely and simply educational,—education upon the same basis as everywhere else where the true notion of education has been reached. It is, not a reforming of something already formed, not a making of something out of nothing, not a making of linen cloth out of cotton fibre—although we may mercerize the raw material to look like the linen, as is done in the highly developed commercial operations of this day,—not a weaving of a princess's silken robe from the trunk of a tree, not a making of a Richelieu out of a court fool, but simply the leading out from the hidden recesses of the child life those powers that fate and ignorance have left to die in their forgotten dungeons.

With what unutterable feelings of pity do we look upon the child of the dead miser when the poor thing has been found starved like a pauper, although every cranny of the hovel is filled with hoarded wealth which was hers to use had she but known of its existence. Yet infinitely more heart-rending is the sight of the mental starvelings and moral paupers who are living their miserable lives in ignorance of the capabilities that they possess, simply because

these capabilities have not been developed from the germs that have always existed in their souls.

This is the major part of our work in the case of the majority of the pupils who enter our schools. When looked at in this light the work is of course fundamental, as well as almost appalling in character. It means to take the child, when of such age that the greater part of the operation should have been initiated and some of it almost completed, and begin the work handicapped by stunted perception and warped sensibilities.

We must enter the very heart of the child life, delve in the rubbish heaps of its character, and find out what gentler, better, more lovely powers have been covered up by the refuse of the one-sided life. We must break open the doors in the very citadel of its being and find the puny germs of capabilities that have been neglected, like the miserable infants of a baby farm, by those to whom their education, their leading-out, belonged.

We must even by indirection and cunning steal into the holy of holies, the religious temple, moral sanctuary of the life, and resuscitate the sleeping conscience that has been drugged into deadness by intoxicating self-indulgence and unsanctified desire. We must follow the sluggish energy back through the unresponsive nerves to the physical condition, and by systematic exercise and proper nourishment build up the brain and feed the system with bounding life.

In few words, we must find out what possibilities are in the child, we must lead them out, train them, establish their power, solidify their influence, and extend their growth until the more undesirable and spontaneous growths of the mind that have fed upon the vicious views of life have been smothered and destroyed.

What this means to the subject of the education, I must leave to the reader to supply. He, as well as I, can see how the difference between ignoramuses and intelligent beings, between ne'er-do-wells and ambitious men, between growing and decaying members of society, and between prosperous citizens and scavengers upon the people and state all lie in the work cut out for us to do. Not only is this true of the generation with which we have to deal, but in thus changing the character of the boys and girls of to-day we are changing the character of the parents of the near future, and so drying up the source from which might flow an increasing supply of like needy pupils in the years to come. For this work we need time, much time, much more time often than is allowed,—time to bring the new found powers into such prominence that they will overshadow those habits or customs of thought and action that have pre-

viously proven inimical to good, useful life,—time to establish the pupil's confidence in them and himself before he is thrown too much upon his own resources, as are most children where given up to other surroundings. But friends see the growing good in the pupil and plead for his return; well-meaning, and, to a degree, thoughtful men, count the tuition by months, and suggest cutting short the work; even the close-observing, seeing the heart somewhat swept and garnished, approve of removal to new conditions; the overflowing buildings of our institutions, too, demand relief. And so because people are not educated to the true reasons of the case, and more because our schools lack the means to provide needed additions, this difficult work, this delicate work, this important work must stop before the way has been cleared for its rapid accomplishment, or at any rate before the full result has been attained and the character formed has had time to harden into resisting power.

The mould made at expense of infinite pains and much time, into which has been poured the molten bronze to form a goddess of beauty, is broken before the metal has cooled and set, and the figure lies before us with every lovely line of the face and every noble curve of the body blurred and distorted.

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#### The First Steps.

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## THE UNDERLYING PRINCIPLES OF PRISON REFORM,

AS APPLIED IN THE SHERBORN REFORMATORY FOR WOMEN.

[It is fitting that this study of reformatory problems should conclude with a quotation of the last words on this subject of Mrs. Ellen C. Johnson, who was superintendent of the reformatory prison for women at Sherborn, Mass., till her death last June. Mrs. Johnson, as readers of the REVIEW know, died suddenly in London on the day following the reading of a paper for the women's congress. This paper, with some abbreviation, we present below. The Editors are indebted to the Massachusetts prison association for the words of the address, which has already been printed by it.

It is needless to take space to explain why this paper, the full experience of the most fruitful life in this work America has yet known, should help more those who are trying to solve the problems of reformatory work than all that has preceded. For what has gone before tells mostly of method; this paper breathes, too, the inspiration without which our methods are of little avail.]

### The First Steps.

Of other prisons and other methods I have neither the right nor the wish to speak, but of the spirit and system of the work which has been my charge for fifteen years, I can speak understandingly. Our women are of all ages and nationalities, of all grades of intelligence or ignorance. The majority are young. Very few are strictly illiterate, that is, unable to read or write, but a large proportion are practically uneducated. We take the woman from the officer in whose charge she comes to us, with no inquiry as to her past. The mittimus sent with her states simply the crime for which she is sentenced, and we do not seek to know more than this. Any woman, criminal though she be, has a right to an unprejudiced trial, and a fair start in her new life. A few necessary data as to age, nativity, and parentage are recorded, a thorough bath follows, and clean, whole clothing replaces the soiled, ragged garments in which most of the women reach us. An examination is made

as to the physical condition, the results of which go on record for possible future reference, and the woman begins her experience as a prisoner by entering the department called "probation."

The probation plan we regard as one of the most effective points in our system, which is essentially a system of grades founded upon the record of the daily conduct of the prisoners. Here the woman spends four weeks by herself in a well-lighted room, twelve by fourteen feet, where she does not come in contact with other prisoners, and sees no one except the officials in charge of her. At the end of that time she is quite certain to be sober, quiet, and disposed to conduct herself properly in the next grade. She has had no privileges except those necessary to health of body and mind. From the time she enters the prison till the day she leaves it every woman is supplied with a readable book from the well chosen library. The prison dress has a large outside pocket in which the book is

carried. The time in probation can therefore be partly employed in reading.

After experiencing the isolation of probation, no woman will again readily forego the companionship of her mates to return to it. Those in charge of her have, meantime, been shown something of her character and tendencies, and are better prepared to meet such manifestations as may appear later. Furthermore, newcomers often develop delirium tremens, not infrequently insanity, and the conditions of the probation ward make it comparatively easy to deal with such cases. Another point in favor of the probation plan is that the news brought by a criminal from the outside world becomes stale and unimportant to the other prisoners before she has a chance to relate it. News four weeks old has little interest for them.

**Provisions for Progress.**

Above probation there are four grades, numbered from one upward, each bringing with it certain privileges, additional to the grade below; privileges so slight as almost to provoke a smile from those who do not realize how small is the world to which these women are restricted, and how few and pathetic are their interests. A different dress, more varied food eaten from better dishes, another way of holding the hands in line of march, and the right to carry a library book in sight, under the arm, instead of out of sight, in the pocket,—only one who has had to deal with prisoners can understand the importance to them of these things, and the influence exercised thereby upon their conduct. Every prisoner knows, when she enters a grade, the number of days she is to remain in it, the date upon which, if she is orderly and obedient, she will pass to the next higher, and her daily record is kept by marks upon

a system which she fully understands.

Every year demonstrates more clearly the value of a graded system in the management of prisoners. Ambition, without which no reform is possible, self-respect, which is the keystone of character, self-control, which *is* character, have been gained by many an unstable, sinful, or despairing soul, simply by the purposeful effort to attain the best rank in her little world. We who watch these women as they pass before us, at work, or at their meals, or in their assembling in the chapel, have learned to recognize the first hopeful signs,—the brightening eye, the lighter step, the tenser muscles, the steady gain, not only in grade, but in spirit. These tell the story. I do not need to say that there are downfalls,—in some cases, many. The habits of a lifetime are not overcome in months. The deadened conscience, the weakened will, the disordered brain, the confused ideas of morality and truthfulness, all conspire to drag down and keep down these unhappy victims of vice and passion. A woman's standing is seriously, sometimes permanently, affected by these lapses, but every effort is made to hold her to her duty, and to restore her if she falls. Patience, gentleness with firmness, time to consider and repent, forgiveness and restoration where it seems wise, loss of grade or punishment in extreme cases,—nothing is left untried in the purpose to save the woman from herself, and to reform her if reform is possible. That it is ever impossible, I dare not take it upon myself to say.

**Intelligent  
Obedience  
Taught.**

Of all the means employed in dealing with offenders, not the least effective is allowing time for reflection. Sober second thoughts will almost surely come to the most enraged and

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excited woman if she is given space to cool her brain and quiet her nerves. Even if circumstances require the infliction of punishment, it will be far more effective if the offender can be made to see the fault and to recognize the justice of the penalty. Criminals are not seldom dull and slow of intellect. They consider themselves the victims of a power which governs by force alone, and which has imprisoned them simply by virtue of its greater strength. They must be made to see the falsity of this belief. They must learn that they are not friendless, and that law, though merciless, is just. Obedience, to attain the best results, should be intelligent, and to arouse the intelligence of a prisoner is a process requiring time and patience. But it pays to take time. Patience is a good investment.

From all that I have said I would not have it inferred that punishment should not sometimes be sharp and sudden. No lesson is more important than that which teaches respect for law and dread of its wrath. At the same time, it is a fundamental point in our theory that every criminal can be won by gentleness and patience. I believe if time were allowed to deal in this way with each individual, that punishment would in time—a long time perhaps, but certainly at last—be abolished as needless. I might give you countless incidents from my own experience, but, perhaps, one extreme case will illustrate sufficiently:

A woman was received at the prison whose intelligence and morals seemed but one degree above those of the brutes. She resisted every offer of friendliness, and defied authority so boldly that we were forced to put her in punishment. But solitude and quiet had no effect except to enrage her still farther, to the doing of deeds unfit to be told

here. She seemed bent upon her own undoing; but we used no severity beyond what was absolutely essential to her control, and she was told quietly, though firmly and repeatedly, that disobedience so persistent would surely involve greater humiliation and atonement. Somehow, I could not give that woman up. I set my patience and resolution against hers, and every day for five weeks I went to see her, hoping and believing that the good in her would triumph. And it did triumph. One night, as I entered her cell, she burst into tears of penitence and shame. "O, Mrs. Johnson!" she cried, "I wanted long ago to tell you that I was sorry, and that I would do anything you asked me to; but I was ashamed to say it. May I begin to-morrow morning?" The victory was complete. The woman did without reluctance or reserve all and more than was asked of her, and I need not tell you of the courage and renewed faith brought to our own hearts by this happy outcome of what had seemed a hopeless contest.

The greatest good can be accomplished, as I have said, only by an intelligent obedience on the part of the prisoner. If she understands the true nature of her offence against law, feels the justice of her penalty, and comes to believe in the friendliness of those who have her in charge, she is prepared for the next step of repentance, aspiration after better things, and a definite purpose to attain them. She begins to see the value of discipline, however grievous it may seem for the present, and to submit herself to it in a spirit which in itself goes far to accomplish the desired work. The end of all discipline is to train mankind in ways of integrity, unselfishness, and sobriety. What other end

The Ideal  
Purpose of  
Discipline.

should we seek for these women, not only for their own sakes, but for the sake of society in whose interest they were imprisoned? They must learn to do right because it is right; to make a right decision when they are free to make a wrong one; to stand steadfast when they are released from restraint and confronted with temptation. A prisoner who obeys because she is afraid to disobey can be trusted as far as the arm of authority can reach, and no farther. One who obeys because she thinks obedience pays better than disobedience may go down under the first strenuous assault of the adversary. The right principle and purpose must reign in the heart, if life is to be either happy or useful. The only effective control of the prisoner is self-control, and to cultivate this in our women every incentive to well-doing is brought to bear and every discouragement to evil-doing is kept before them.

**Some  
Interesting  
Experiments.**

Many of the privileges given, especially those in the form of recreation, are unannounced and irregular in their recurrence, and often of a kind new in the experience of the women. For instance, as an unexpected and exceptional favor, they were summoned from their beds at midnight, bidden to wrap their blankets about them, and pass in procession to the office. They obeyed, not knowing why, and were rewarded by the sight of a night-blooming cereus in full glory of fragrant blossom; and the delighted faces, the orderly behavior, and the earnest thanks expressed then and later, by word and act, shewed their appreciation of the favor.

At another time, on the last day of the year, I went into the rooms where the women were gathered for their evening recreation, and told

them that, as was my custom, I should spend the closing half hour of the year in the chapel; and that I should be glad to see there that night any woman who felt that by coming she could find comfort for her soul and inspiration towards a better life. They were all free to come or to stay away, but whatever they did they must conduct themselves so that there would be nothing to regret, either for them or for me. The plan was no impulse,—I had considered it well, and was convinced of its wisdom, notwithstanding the fact that of the three hundred women in the prison, a large proportion were in the lower grades, and comparatively unused to discipline. I had spent hours that day planning the simple decorations in the chapel. The Christmas greens still hung on the walls. About the desk I placed palms and flowers. In front and between these was a bank of white lilies with nodding heads and golden hearts, and into the centre of these I dropped a single electric light. It shone up into the faces of the flowers, and beamed out with a soft radiance through the snowy petals; and the place was glorified. At half-past eleven that night I was in my place in the chapel, with my deputy at my side, and the organist at the instrument. I heard the distant, measured step of the women in the corridors, coming nearer and nearer, and then they filed in, a single matron in charge of each division. I looked over the expectant faces.—every woman in the prison was there, except those in probation and a few in the hospital. We had a simple service, responsive reading from the psalms, prayer, and singing, ending with a hymn suited to the closing year. At three minutes before twelve I said, "Now we will kneel in silent prayer."

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**Means Used  
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They dropped on their knees as one woman, and amid a silence unbroken save by the prison bell as it tolled the midnight hour, we passed from the old year over into the new. When we rose, I talked to them for a little about some matters necessary and helpful in their daily life, then we sang together a New Year's hymn, and they went as they had come, in order and quiet, their footsteps growing fainter down the stairs and along the corridors,—and I knew the experiment had succeeded. Time and time again, as the days went by, was I assured by one and another of the helpfulness of that midnight service. So satisfactory were the results that what was at first only an experiment has become a custom, and is carried out on every New Year's eve.

Means Used  
to reach the  
Prisoners.

But we try to reach and influence the women not only by their recreation, and by the privileges which belong to the successive grades, but by other means,—flowers, music, reading, pet animals, the little children in the nursery, their helpless comrades in the hospital,—in some way, at some time, we can almost certainly reach a tender spot in the heart of every woman, a little handful of soil where the good seed may find lodgment. There are very few to whom flowers do not appeal, and we employ them freely in chapel decorations, often using one variety alone, as on "cowslip Sunday," and "laurel Sunday." After the service on a certain "cowslip Sunday," an English woman, whose hands, like those of the other prisoners, were full of the golden blossoms, came and told me in earnest words how they had touched her heart, and stirred memories of an innocent childhood spent amid the green fields of England, where the primroses grew.

In all that I have said in regard

to the time and efforts spent in reaching the reason and the conscience of a prisoner, I do not wish to be misunderstood. We suffer no compromise with authority; we allow no parleying nor evasion of orders. We desire intelligent and willing obedience, but it must also be instant and complete. That this is thoroughly understood by the women, let me give a proof:

The women are sometimes allowed five minutes for general conversation at the close of public exercise. Every tongue will be active when such an opportunity is given, but at the first tap of the bell on the superintendent's desk, the sound stops on the instant. There is no gradual lessening of the volume of conversation, no scattering words falling on the silence here and there; the hush is absolute and instantaneous. This argues a degree of training in prompt and perfect obedience.

Employment,  
Teaching,  
Recreations.

I have said nothing in regard to the occupations of our prisoners, but it may be stated in a general way that they are such as will best fit the woman for a life of freedom and self-support. All branches of housekeeping, cooking, dairying, laundry work, plain sewing, the arrangement and management of a house, the care of the sick and of small children, all are part of the daily routine, besides the rearing of silk worms and the winding of the silk, an especially attractive duty to most of the prisoners, and bestowed as a high privilege upon those who have shown themselves trusty and steadfast.

Those women who are illiterate, that is, unable to read or write, are arranged in two classes, one for reading and one for writing, and each class spends an hour a day, for five days in the week, in the school-room; while to those who prove apt

and docile some additional teaching is given in an evening class.

The subject of prison recreation is one to which we have given much time and thought. The custom of allowing unrestrained intercourse between convicts of all ages and grades, even for a limited time and in the presence of an officer, seems to us unwise, for all experience shows that the conversation of prisoners, when left to themselves, will certainly relate chiefly to their sinful past. In such "recreation" there is no good and much harm, since it effectually destroys the tender growth of a new purpose, and gives added impulse to the unruly and evil-disposed. We endeavor, therefore, by various expedients, to break into this free recreation time and turn it to better use.

In the first place, the different grades, four in number, are never, either in work or recreation, allowed to converse together. Each has its own corridor and cell block, its own recreation and dining-rooms, and its own division of seats in the chapel; and in the latter place, as well as in the workrooms and schoolroom, no conversation, of course, is permitted. Even among members of the same grade the recreation, allowed for a half hour each day, is made general as often as possible by means of readings, music, games, simple entertainments, often arranged by the women themselves. For the higher grades an evening temperance club, managed by the prisoners, has proved of great interest and profit. The literary efforts of some of the women are surprisingly good. The little silver T given as a club badge, and attached to the breast by a knot of red ribbon, helps to produce an *esprit de corps* which in its way is beneficial both to the members and to us who are trying to inculcate the principles of "temperance, truth, and trust," for which the T stands. The red ribbon

in itself is the badge of the "trust women" who constitute the higher grades of division iv, and are those only who have maintained from the day of their entrance into the prison an unbroken record for obedience and honest effort.

Of course, the prisoners themselves are not aware of our wish to interfere with their recreation time. They are very jealous for what they consider their rights, and whatever we do must be managed with tact, not to antagonize them and so destroy the good effect of our efforts.

I have tried in this short space to give you an outline of the spirit and methods in the Massachusetts reformatory prison for women. To sum up briefly, the principles are these:

A criminal reformed is a citizen gained.

No criminal is incorrigible.

Love rules better than fear.

Perhaps these thoughts can be stated in no way better than in the words of your own noble philanthropist, Elizabeth Frye; words which have guided and inspired prison workers on both sides of the water:

"The spirit must be the spirit, not of judgment, but of mercy.

"In our conduct towards these unfortunate females, kindness, gentleness, and true humility ought ever to be united with serenity and firmness.

"The good principle in the heart of many abandoned persons may be compared to the few remaining sparks of a nearly extinguished fire. By means of the utmost care and attention, united with the most gentle treatment, these may yet be fanned into flame; but under the operation of a rough and violent hand they will presently disappear and be lost forever."

### III—PRIVATE

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## THE CARE OF DESTITUTE, NEGLECTED, AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

AMERICAN PHILANTHROPY OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY)

BY HOMER FOLKS.

### III—PRIVATE CHARITIES FOR DESTITUTE CHILDREN: 1801-1875.

Though there has been throughout the century a steady growth in the number and importance of children's institutions founded from philanthropic motives and supported by the gifts of the generous, it seems best to divide their history into two chapters,—1801 to 1875, and 1875 to the close of the century. The establishment of public systems of child-saving work in various states in the decade 1870-1880, and the enactment of laws for the removal of children from almshouses, changed the conditions under which the private charities did their work, and in some states strongly affected their character and methods. The work of the private agencies for the care of destitute children, after 1875 will therefore be taken up after we have considered the public systems adopted in various states, in place of caring for children in almshouses.

Prior to the opening of the nineteenth century agencies for the care of destitute children had been established by private benevolence in the cities of New Orleans, Savannah, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Boston. The orphan asylum founded by Whitefield in Savannah

in 1738 passed through many vicissitudes and gradually became an academy rather than an orphan home. It was Whitefield's wish to have it become a college, but his majesty, George II, declined to grant a college charter. The buildings were twice burned, and the academy was closed in 1791. The five other organizations founded prior to 1801 have continued their work to the present.

New York  
Orphan Asylum.

The first charity for children organized in the United States after 1800 was the New York orphan asylum society. During the early days of the society for the relief of widows with small children, organized in 1797, the question often arose as to how the children of deceased widows should be cared for, the funds of the society not being available for their support. A copy of the life of Francke, with a history of his orphan house at Halle, fell into the hands of one of the managers of the society, and this led to the establishment of the orphan asylum society.

The original constitution of the society, adopted in 1807, provided that admittance should be granted only to orphans, who should be edu-



cated, fed, and clothed at the expense of the society, and at the asylum. It was further provided that, "As soon as the age and acquirements of orphans shall, in the opinion of the board of direction, render them capable of earning their living they must be bound out to some reputable persons or families for such object and in such manner as the board shall approve."

In the absence of a public school system it was natural that the managers should feel that the admission of the children was necessary for their education, no less than for their maintenance. It would have been very difficult at that time to secure the education of children placed out in free homes or boarded in families. The early reports of the society all indicate that the children were to be placed out as soon as they had received a fair education. The by-laws provided that, "The boys shall be bound to farmers or mechanics, the girls to respectable families. A book shall be kept at the asylum in which applicants for children shall insert their names, occupations, and references for character, which shall be laid before the board. At the monthly meeting a committee shall be appointed to make the necessary inquiries." In the charter of the society, granted by the legislature in 1807, its purposes were declared to be "protecting, relieving, and instructing orphan children."

The third annual report states that the plan of the society is, "To bind out the girls as servants from the time they can read and write until

they are eighteen; and the boys, when equally instructed, are to be put out as servants till the age of fifteen, at which time they are to be returned to the trustees of the asylum, who will then bind them as apprentices to virtuous mechanics."

Before the society was two years old, finding itself encumbered with debt, it applied to the state legislature for assistance from the public treasury, an unfortunate example that has been very generally followed by New York children's institutions from that day to this. The legislature responded by extending the grant of a lottery which they had previously made to the board of health, upon condition that \$5,000 of the proceeds should be paid to the orphan asylum society. The sum of \$5,000 was received from the proceeds of this lottery in 1815, but meanwhile, in 1811, the legislature granted the society an annual contribution of \$500, to be paid from the duties on auction sales, a sum which the society received each year until 1853.

The early reports of the society indicate that a considerable number of their children were received directly from the almshouse. The society often stated with pride, that no orphan child had ever been refused admission to the institution. The twelfth report states that in the month of February eleven orphan children were received from the New York almshouse, and adds that "The honorable, the corporation, have never been prevailed upon to extend even a small share of that patronage

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to this society which it might seem to claim from them, and for which they have been repeatedly solicited." An interesting glimpse of the life of the children in the asylum is afforded by the fourteenth annual report, which informs us that "The boys have been employed in reading, writing, arithmetic, and committing scripture to memory, thirty-four boys having learned from 150 to 1,500 verses each, and one has committed the whole of the New Testament. For health and recreation they have, under the direction of the superintendent, cultivated the ground owned or rented by the society."

The sixteenth annual report, dated April, 1822, stated that since the commencement of the society there had been received 446 children, of whom 243 had been placed with respectable employers, a number were out on trial, 15 had died, and 152 remained in the asylum.

Baltimore  
Orphan  
Asylum.

A year after the New York orphan asylum was organized, a society in Baltimore, known as the female orphanine charity school, purchased a house and added to its educational work the care and maintenance of destitute children. It had been established in 1778 as the female humane associated charity school. Although the care of children was undertaken in addition to their education in 1807, the name of the institution was not changed until 1827, when it became the Baltimore female orphan asylum, the name being again changed in 1846, to the

Baltimore orphan asylum. The act of incorporation of 1807 provided that, "For the orderly management of said school, there shall be annually appointed nine discreet female characters. . ." The directors were also given power to bind out children placed in the school.

Boston.

In 1813, the Boston asylum for indigent boys was organized, for the purpose of "relieving, instructing, and employing indigent boys." In 1835, the institution was consolidated with the Boston farm school society, which two years before had purchased Thompson's island, in Boston harbor, and opened an institution "for the education and reformation of boys who from loss of parents or other causes were exposed to extraordinary temptations."

Other  
Institutions.

In 1814, the orphan society, of Philadelphia, apparently modeled somewhat after the New York and Baltimore societies, was organized "To protect, relieve, support, and instruct orphan children." In the following year, under the leadership of the wife of President Madison, the Washington city orphan asylum was established at the national capital. This institution was dependent upon private generosity, its only aid from public sources being a grant of land valued at \$10,000 in 1832. The protestant orphan asylum, of Natchez, Miss., was organized in 1816. In the following year, three institutions were established,—the Poydras female

orphan asylum, endowed by Julien Poydras, in New Orleans; St. Mary's female orphan asylum, of Baltimore, and the Roman catholic orphan asylum society in New York city, the latter two being the first catholic institutions in these cities.

**List of  
Children's  
Charities.**

The writer has not found it possible to prepare a complete list of the private institutions for children established in the United States. Less than half of the states have state boards of charities, and even the reports of most of these boards give little information concerning private institutions. In several of the largest cities directories of charities are published by the charity organization societies. The report on crime, pauperism, and benevolence forming a part of the eleventh census gives in part ii, pages 894-936, a list of benevolent institutions in each state. They are not classified, however; orphan asylums, hospitals, homes for the aged, and other charities being grouped in one table. Nor is there any list of the institutions discontinued prior to 1890. From all of the sources indicated above, and by special correspondence, a table has been prepared, which is believed to be reasonably complete, showing the dates of the organization of private charities for children during the first half of the century. The writer would be grateful for any corrections to the list, which follows:

1727 Orphan asylum of Ursuline convent, New Orleans.

1738 Bethesda orphan house, Savannah.

1797 Society for the relief of widows and small children, New York.

1798 St. Joseph's female orphan asylum, R. C., Philadelphia.

1799 St. Paul's orphanage, P. E., Baltimore.

1800 Boston (female) orphan asylum.

1806 Orphan asylum society, New York.

1807 Orphan asylum, Baltimore.

1813 Boston asylum for indigent boys.

1814 Orphan society of Philadelphia.

1815 Washington city orphan asylum, Washington, D. C.

1816 Protestant orphan asylum, Natchez.

1817 St. Mary's female orphan asylum, Baltimore.

1817 Roman catholic orphan asylum, New York.

1817 Poydras female orphan asylum, New Orleans.

1822 Association for the care of colored orphans, Philadelphia.

1824 Asylum for destitute orphan boys, New Orleans.

1826 Roman catholic orphan asylum, Brooklyn.

1828 Female orphan asylum, Portland, Me.

1829 St. John's orphan asylum, R. C., Philadelphia.

1830 Orphan asylum, Utica.

1831 St. Vincent's orphan asylum, R. C. Boston.

1831 Orphan asylum, Albany.

1831 St. Vincent's female orphan asylum, R. C., Washington, D. C.

1831 Leake and Watts orphan asylum, New York.

1832 Farm school society, Boston.

1833 Orphan asylum, New Haven.

1833 Orphan asylum, Cincinnati.

1833 Orphan asylum society, Brooklyn.

1833 Children's friend society, Boston.

1833 Infant school and children's home association (now the Hunt asylum for destitute children), Boston.

1834 St. John's female orphan asylum, R. C., Utica.

1835 Children's friend society, Providence.

1835 Society for half-orphan and destitute children, New York.

1835 Orphan asylum, Troy.

1835 Nickerson home for children, Boston.

1836 Orphan asylum, Buffalo.

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1836 Colored orphan asylum, New York.  
 1837 Foster home association, Philadelphia.  
 1837 St. Aloysius orphan asylum, R. C., Bond Hill, Ohio.  
 1838 Catholic male orphan asylum, Mobile.  
 1838 Shelter for colored children, Providence.  
 1838 Orphan asylum, Rochester.  
 1839 Protestant orphan asylum, Mobile.  
 1839 Children's home, Bangor, Me.  
 1840 St. Vincent de Paul male orphan asylum, R. C., Baltimore.  
 1840 Christ church asylum for female children, Baltimore.  
 1841 Southern home for destitute children, Philadelphia.  
 1843 New orphan asylum for colored youths, Avondale, Ohio.  
 1844 Male orphan asylum, Richmond, Va.  
 1845 St. Mary's home, R. C., Savannah.  
 1845 St. Peter's asylum, P. E., Baltimore.  
 1845 Onondaga county orphan asylum, Syracuse.  
 1845 St. Patrick's orphan asylum, R. C., Rochester.  
 1845 Protestant orphan asylum, Nashville.  
 1845 St. Vincent's orphan asylum, R. C., Albany.  
 1845 Manual labor school for indigent boys, Baltimore.  
 1846 Hudson orphan and relief association, Hudson, N. Y.  
 1846 Institution of mercy, R. C., New York.  
 1846 Society for the relief of destitute children of seamen, New York.  
 1847 Temporary home for the destitute (now the Gwynne temporary home for children, Boston).  
 1847 Orphan house, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.  
 1847 St. Mary's orphan asylum, R. C., Natchez.  
 1848 Protestant foster home, Newark.  
 1848 Orphan asylum, Newark.  
 1848 Jefferson county orphan asylum, Watertown, N. Y.  
 1848 St. Vincent's female orphan asylum, R. C., Buffalo.  
 1848 St. Patrick's orphan asylum, R. C., Baltimore.

1848 Protestant home for orphan girls, Baton Rouge.  
 1848 Children's friend society, Worcester.  
 1849 Children's mission to children of the destitute, Boston.  
 1849 German protestant orphan asylum, Cincinnati.  
 1849 St. Joseph's male orphan asylum, R. C., Buffalo.  
 1849 Orphan asylum, Chicago, Ill.  
 1849 Kentucky female orphan asylum, Midway, Ky.  
 1850 St. Vincent's asylum, R. C., San Rafael, Cal.  
 1850 Five points house of industry, New York.

The various periods may be grouped as follows:

Founded prior to 1801	6
" 1801 " 1811	2
" 1811 " 1821	7
" 1821 " 1831	6
" 1831 " 1841	26
" 1841 " 1851	30
	77

New York had already begun to show its tendency to multiply institutions, under the influence of aid from the public treasury. With one-seventh of the population of the country, the state included two-sevenths of the institutions founded prior to 1851. It is not possible to trace the establishment of new institutions after 1850 in detail. It may be stated that everywhere they increased in numbers and in diversity of character and objects. Not including some central and western states, from which returns have not been received, forty-seven new institutions were organized in the fifties, seventy-nine in the sixties (notwithstanding the civil war), and twenty-one in the first half of the seventies.

Various  
Types of  
Institutions.

In the list of children's charities founded prior to 1850, there are several different types of institutions. One type was that founded by a group of people who were not necessarily associated in any other organization, and whose activities in this direction seemed to be prompted solely by philanthropic impulses. Usually, however, it happened that these persons either were members of protestant churches or of none. Some form of religious observance, undenominational, but non-catholic, was usually provided for the children. In name, organization, and management the institution was not connected with any church organization. This type, well represented by the orphan asylum societies, would usually regard itself as non-sectarian, but by members of other than protestant churches it would be called sectarian and protestant.

Another type was the orphan asylum organized as a distinctively religious institution, largely under the control of the church authorities, and usually under the immediate management of the religious orders. Each form of organization has its peculiar merits and its disadvantages, but the reader who misses the difference between the two points of view above set forth will fail to understand many of the most powerful influences in the development of child-saving agencies in the United States.

A third type of institution appeared later, the endowed orphan asylum, established usually by a

bequest, and managed as a trust by a board of directors. Such were the Poydras female orphan asylum in New Orleans, the Leake and Watts orphan asylum in New York, Girard college in Philadelphia, the McDonough school near Baltimore, and many others. Among these, Girard college is worthy of special mention. Stephen Girard died in 1831 leaving property then worth about \$6,000,000 for the establishment of a college for orphans. Evidently he had both charitable and educational objects in mind, for in his will he specified that, "As many poor white male orphans between the ages of six and ten years as the said income shall be adequate to maintain shall be introduced into the college as soon as possible." The term male orphan has been construed to mean any fatherless boy whose mother has not remarried. It was Mr. Girard's wish that boys who proved worthy should be kept until at least fourteen years of age, but not after reaching the age of eighteen. Unruly boys were to be dismissed. Buildings costing nearly \$3,000,000 were completed in 1847. The endowment has greatly increased in value, the present value of property of the institution now being estimated at \$24,000,000, and yielding an annual net income of nearly \$1,000,000. The institution opened with 100 boys on January 1, 1848, and the number steadily increased until on December 31, 1898, there were 1,934 pupils. The boys are taught all branches that are suitable for children of their ages. It is, of course, not a college in any

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true sense of the term, but is intended to fit boys for commercial and mechanical pursuits. The estate, which was left to the care of the mayor, aldermen, and citizens of Philadelphia, is administered by the board of city trusts, appointed by the supreme court of Pennsylvania and the city courts of Philadelphia. The grounds are surrounded by a high stone wall, and in many respects, notwithstanding the beauty of the buildings and grounds, the college has a decidedly institutional appearance. The class of boys received includes many who otherwise would probably be admitted to orphan asylums and such institutions, with a proportion of those whose parents are in rather better circumstances.

Its beneficence is not to be questioned; but when it is remembered that this institution has a larger endowment than any university in the land, it is to be questioned whether its founder did wisely in yoking together free education and free maintenance. As an educational agency, even if it were to give the same sort of education as at present, it certainly could reach a very much larger number who need such instruction if it were simply a series of day schools. On the other hand, solely as a charity, it could be much more effective if freed from the restrictions imposed by the will, in view of the educational features of the proposed college. On the whole, it is to be feared that the name of its founder must be added to the already long list of those who

have erred in trying to foresee the social needs of the future, and in tying up vast estates to uses which soon fail to meet the most serious needs of the community. Girard college is the largest and most important endowed children's institution in the United States, and probably in the world, but the example of Stephen Girard is not one to be followed by wise philanthropists.

#### Special Classes.

Institutions for special classes of children also appeared. The Philadelphia association for the care of colored orphans was organized by the society of friends in 1822, and was followed by similar institutions in Providence in 1835, in New York in 1836, in Avondale, near Cincinnati, in 1843, a second in Philadelphia in 1855, and one in Brooklyn in 1866. Boston established no separate institutions for colored children, but it is likely that then, as now, both colored and white children were received in many of her asylums. The institutions for colored children appeared in those localities in which the influence of the quakers, or friends, was strong.

About 1845 a day school, established by the society of friends, for the children on the Cattaraugus Indian reservation near Buffalo, New York, was reorganized as an asylum for orphan and destitute Indian children. For ten years it was supported by voluntary contributions, but from 1855 it received subsidies from the state. When state subsidies were abolished in 1875, it was reorganized as a state

institution, and is to-day the only state institution in New York for the care of destitute children.

Another institution for a special class of inmates was the home for children of destitute seamen in the city and port of New York, established on Staten island in 1846.

In founding children's institutions of a distinctly religious character, the catholics easily took the lead. Of the seventy-seven institutions, established prior to 1851, twenty-one were under catholic auspices. In the "fifties," a number of new institutions were added to the list of those under the auspices of the protestant episcopal church—the orphans' home and asylum of the protestant episcopal church in New York city in 1851, the church charity foundation of Long Island in the same year, the charity foundation of the protestant episcopal church in the city of Buffalo in 1858, the church home for orphan and destitute children in Boston in 1855, the church home for children in Philadelphia in 1856. The lutherans established the lutheran orphan home in Philadelphia in 1859, the evangelical lutheran St. John orphan home in Buffalo in 1864, the Wartburg farm school in New York city in 1866, and the Martin Luther orphan home in Boston in 1871.

The first Jewish institution for children was probably the Jewish orphans' home in New Orleans, established in 1856. This was followed by the Jewish foster home in Philadelphia in the same year,

the New York Hebrew orphan asylum in 1860, the orphans' guardians society in Philadelphia in 1863, the Pacific Hebrew orphan asylum in San Francisco in 1870, the Hebrew orphan asylum in Baltimore in 1872, and others.<sup>1</sup>

In 1851 a new type of institution appeared in the New York juvenile asylum, organized through the efforts of the association for improving the condition of the poor, as the house of refuge had been organized a quarter of a century before, by the society for the prevention of pauperism. The juvenile asylum aimed to receive not simply destitute children, but also children who were neglected and in danger of moral ruin, and wayward children. It received children upon surrender by parents, and also upon commitment by the courts. It combined, in our opinion unfortunately, the functions of a home for destitute children, a training school for neglected children, and a juvenile reformatory. From the first it received substantial aid from public funds, both city and state.

*Infants.* Institutions for infants, combining the functions of maternity hospitals, infants' hospitals, and foundling asylums, appeared in the "fifties." St. Mary's asylum for widows, foundlings, and infants was incorporated in 1852, but did not begin work until somewhat later. The nursery and child's hospital was established in New York city in 1854, and the

<sup>1</sup> See article on "Jewish child-saving in the United States." Proceedings of the national conference of charities and correction, 1897, p. 108.

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New York infant asylum in 1865. The Massachusetts infant asylum was organized in 1867, the foundlings' asylum of the sisters of charity in New York in 1869, and the Philadelphia home for infants in 1871. Finding the mortality among babies cared for in institutions in cities very high, these institutions either established country branches, or placed the younger children at board in families. The sisters of charity in New York, the Massachusetts infant asylum, and the nursery and child's hospital adopted the latter plan, and the first and second still continue its use for large numbers of their children. The New York infant asylum and the nursery and child's hospital have each established country branches, one in Westchester county and one on Staten island, in which their younger children are cared for.

Temporary homes for children, as distinguished from orphan asylums in which the residence was more permanent, were established in Boston in 1847, and in Philadelphia in 1856. The sheltering arms, established in New York city in 1864, was designed especially for children of whom one or both parents are living, and are able to contribute towards the children's support.

In 1863 the New York catholic protectorcy was organized somewhat on the lines of the New York juvenile asylum. It received both boys and girls of all ages from two to sixteen years, and all classes of destitute, neglected, and delinquent children. It received substantial aid

from the city and state for the erection of buildings, and the cost of maintenance was, from the first, borne largely, and in later years wholly, by the city through a per capita grant made under a mandate of the state legislature. This institution grew with great rapidity, having 1,944 inmates on October 1, 1875, and has since become the largest children's institution in the United States, if not in the world. Its history will be considered more fully in the account of private charities from 1875 to the present. A similar institution, but receiving boys only, was established near Buffalo in 1864.

**Disposal of  
Older  
Children.**

Most of the above-mentioned agencies made more or less use of indenture, adoption, or placing out of children. Many of the orphan asylums adopted a rule that boys should be bound out at the age of twelve and girls at the age of fourteen. In the earlier history of Girard college many boys, upon leaving the institution, were bound out to farmers. As a rule, the orphan asylums seemed to regard the placing-out system rather as a convenient means of disposing of older children than as an essential part of the plan by which they were to benefit homeless children. There is little evidence of any adequate inquiry into the circumstances of the persons receiving children, or of any system of subsequent oversight. The children, after leaving the doors of the institution, were in too large measure lost sight of. A few of the institutions, however, laid great stress

upon the placing of orphan and permanently deserted children in families, and developed more or less satisfactory plans for finding homes for large numbers of children. Among such were the New York juvenile asylum (1851), the New England home for little wanderers (1865), and the New York foundling asylum (1869), all of which sent numbers of children to homes in the western states. At the date of the establishment of many of the orphan asylums there was more reason for retaining children for considerable periods of time than in later years. The public-school systems had not yet been adopted, and it seemed necessary, in order to secure the proper education of orphan children, that they should be collected in institutions. With the establishment of public-school systems, not only in the cities, but throughout the rural districts, this necessity disappeared, though many institutions failed to recognize the changed conditions under which their work might be carried on. This perhaps contributed to the fact that a new type of organization appeared.

**Children's Aid Societies.**

Societies, known as children's aid societies, were organized in New York in 1853, Baltimore in 1860, Boston in 1865, Brooklyn in 1866, Buffalo in 1872, and Philadelphia in 1882.

The New York society, organized through the efforts of the late Rev. Charles Loring Brace in 1853, addressed itself to the improvement of the condition of the poor children in New York in many ways: through the establishment of lodging-houses

for newsboys and other homeless children; by day and evening schools for children who were not reached by the public-school system; by reading-rooms and religious meetings; and by sending homeless children to families in the country. The last of these plans is the only one which comes directly within the scope of this paper. This plan was, in brief, to send homeless children in groups of from twenty to forty to some point in the western states, where arrangements had been made for holding a large public meeting on the date of the arrival of the children. At this meeting, the work of the society was explained, and people were urged to receive these friendless children into their hearts and homes. A local committee had been appointed to pass upon applications, and to see that none but respectable people, able to give good homes to children, received them.

In several important respects this plan differed from previous methods of placing out children by adoption or indenture. In selecting the territory offering the best opportunities for young people, even though at great distances from New York city, in appealing to the humanity of the country people rather than to their business instincts, in taking the young children rather than the older ones, and in boldly asserting that the ordinary experiences of life in an ordinary family are a better preparation for self-support and self-guidance than institutional training,—in these, and in other respects, the work challenges our admiration, for

its boldness, its value of money, its comprehensive character, were received as lodging-houses, infant asylums, directly from the have undone plans and laws. While it may records have rigid supervision satisfactory large proportion out have been parts of the communities. considerable professions; so positions became a state. We work of the statistics of only recent those of families tion to a rural older boys work was p city. The averaged a sand per year 1854-75. I to say that child problem the twenty strongly a other one. An intensive work guardians The object and education

its boldness, its appreciation of the value of normal social forces, and its comprehensiveness. The children were received from the newsboys' lodging-houses, from orphan and infant asylums, from almshouses, and directly from parents. The results have undoubtedly justified the bold plans and large hopes of its founders. While it might be desired that fuller records had been kept and a more rigid supervision followed, there is satisfactory evidence that a very large proportion of the children sent out have become integral and useful parts of the growing western communities. A number have attained considerable eminence in the professions; several have held important positions of public trust, and one became a governor of a western state. We shall allude later to the work of the society after 1875. The statistics of children placed but have only recently been separated from those of families for whom transportation to a rural point was given, and for older boys for whose employment work was provided near New York city. The number placed in families averaged almost exactly one thousand per year for the twenty years 1854-75. It is probably not too much to say that this work affected the child problem of New York city, for the twenty years prior to 1875, more strongly and beneficently than any other one factor.

An interesting though not extensive work is that of the orphans' guardians of Philadelphia (1863). The object of this society is to rear and educate Hebrew orphans by

boarding them with a relative, or with some other worthy family, a member of the board of directors becoming the legal guardian of the child.

The children's aid society of Baltimore was founded in 1860 for the purpose of finding homes for destitute children. Ninety-eight children were placed in families during the first year. At first, only children from ten to fifteen years of age were received. Many of the children were received from the courts and magistrates, and on the ground that it was "an important adjunct to the police department," the city council appropriated to the society from \$500 to \$1,000 annually; the remainder was received from private contributions. In 1871 Mr. Henry Watson bequeathed \$100,000 to the society, which thereafter was known as the Henry Watson children's aid society. No further contributions of public or private funds were solicited. The placing-out work was not largely increased, but a sewing school, a boarding home for working girls, and a lodging-house for adults and children were added to the placing-out department.

The Boston children's aid society was organized in 1863. Its purpose, according to the act of incorporation of 1865, was that of "providing temporary homes for vagrant, destitute, and exposed children, and those under criminal prosecution of tender age in Boston and its vicinity, and of providing for them such other or further relief as may be advisable to rescue them from moral ruin." Ap-

parently, the founders of the society were not quite clear as to just how they would care for their children. Section 4 of the charter provided with admirable caution, that "The directors shall have authority, at their discretion, to receive *into their asylum or care* such children of tender age as they may deem suitable objects of the charity intended by this institution." The directors were also given power to bind out children "in virtuous families," and to consent to their adoption. The first work of the society was the establishment of a temporary home in the country, known as Pine farm. The first annual report of the society is largely a description of this farm school, although the sentiment is expressed several times that it is the purpose of the society to maintain "an oversight and influence" over the boys after they leave the farm. Fifty-two boys were received the first year, and twenty-three were discharged, of whom eight were placed in families in the country. In the third annual report of the society, we find the sentiment ex-

pressed by those in charge of the farm school that it is difficult to find places in families for the younger boys. The wish is expressed "that the society would authorize us to try the plan of paying moderate board in families in which we can trust them and thus enable us to benefit a larger number." The reports of the society prior to 1875 tell interestingly of the work of two admirable temporary homes or training-schools in the country, but give comparatively little promise of the splendid development of preventive work and of boarding out and placing out, carried on by the society in more recent years.

The children's aid societies organized in Brooklyn in 1866, and in Buffalo in 1872, devoted their energies rather to the maintenance of lodging-houses, newsboys' homes, and industrial schools, than to the placing out of children. The beneficent work of the children's aid society of Pennsylvania was not begun until 1882, and will be treated of in a subsequent chapter, as will also be that of the children's home societies.

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*Charity versus Outdoor Relief.* (Canon Barnett.)  
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